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ABSTRACT

This annotated bibliography contains 208 entries on educational and other kinds of assistance to low income homemakers. Section 1 contains theoretical analyses of intervention strategies. These strategies are then illustrated by accounts of programs in home management instruction, homemakers' services, special programs for "chronic" poor housekeepers, housing and urban renewal, consumer education, and parent education regarding preschool and school age children. Subsequent sections are on the role of social service agencies, multiservice programs, and community development; literacy education, manpower development, and general aspects of adult education; the training and use of indigenous nonprofessionals; descriptive and evaluative research on poverty; and urban extension through universities, the Ford Foundation, and Urban Four-H. Periodicals, conference reports, and special journal issues are reviewed in the last section. (ly)

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HELPING LOW-INCOME HOMEMAKERS:

PROGRAMS AND EVALUATIONS

A Selected, Annotated Bibliography

Margaret Harding

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Programs and Evaluations

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Margaret Harding

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FOREWORD

The work which led to publication of this collection of abstracts began early in 1967 under the direction of Dr. Harold Feldman of the Department of Child Development and Family Relationships of the New York State College of Human Ecology (the then New York State College of Home Economics) at Cornell University. Dr. Feldman was at that time chairman of a special interdepartmental study group, FACT (Family and Community Teams), which was exploring ways in which the teaching, research, and cooperative extension resources of the college could be adapted to the needs and opportunities in New York City, particularly among low-income families.

To help the FACT group, a search was undertaken for reports on action and research projects with enough similarity in purpose, staff, or clientele to provide some guidance. At first the search was for projects meeting the following criteria:

1. The program mainly affected low-income adults in an urban area;

2. The action was some type of informal education (rather than political action or therapy) in one or more of the fields included in home economics (child development and family relationships, food and nutrition, household economics and management, housing and design, and textiles and clothing);

3. The effectiveness of the action was measured by research of acceptable academic quality planned and carried out as an integral part of the total plan for the program.

We found that very few such projects had been completed and reported, but that professionals in many fields were working on similar projects. Recent reports were scarce, were published in temporary form if at all, and were not readily available to home economists.

Surveying programs already under way in urban areas continued as part of the assignment of the Cornell-based research staff of the Cornell-OEO Project in the winter of 1967-68, under the leadership of Dr. Ethel Vatter, Coordinator of Research for the College of Human Ecology.

It became clear during 1968 that the college staff and students as well as cooperative extension personnel throughout the state would be increasingly concerned with low-income families and would be called on to help plan, to participate in, and to evaluate anti-poverty programs. The College Research Committee generously agreed to support the preparation of abstracts of selected reports for publication.

Locating, selecting, abstracting, and organizing the material was the work of Mrs. Margaret Harding, with editorial and administrative help from Dr. Vatter. Other college staff members who assisted include Mrs. Sylvia Wahl, Mrs. Teresita Voelkner, and Mrs. Cynthia Burton. Much-needed encouragement has come from Miss Lucinda Noble and Mrs. Marian Kira of the Cooperative Extension staff and from Dr. Harold Feldman and Dr. John Harding of the Department of Child Development and Family Relationships of this college.

INTRODUCTION

In selecting entries for this bibliography we have attempted to provide first a framework in which to look at programs intended to relieve poverty. From this perspective it is clear that most of the anti-poverty programs undertaken by home economists are intended to enable very poor people to make more efficient use of limited resources; to increase their earning capacity by training for employment; or to provide employment to a limited number of non-professional aides. Improvement in morale, in living conditions, in nutrition, and in the physical care and intellectual stimulation of young children are recurrent themes, less directly focused on reducing poverty.

Social workers, educators, and many other professionals are working with the same poor people, sometimes with very similar objectives, encountering some of the same problems, and developing some of the same methods.

As a college-based group the 1967 FACT committee was interested in research, primarily research which would indicate to what extent the many new programs were achieving their stated objectives. Several recurrent questions raised at FACT meetings and again in Cornell-OEO research staff meetings guided the search. Some of these questions were:

- Is it possible to do evaluative research of a quality that will satisfy academic standards in an urban extension setting? What are the objectives and the criteria of success? Who sets the objectives? What devices do we have for evaluating an urban extension program?

- What conditions are necessary for evaluative research to be done in an action program? What are the major obstacles? Should the action staff participate in the research?

- What research methods are appropriate? Is it possible to interview low-income families without antagonizing them? Are case records a satisfactory substitute for interviews?

- What part can graduate or under-graduate students have in an urban extension program? Would they be resented? Where would they live? Could training experiences be developed that would be beneficial for both the students and the ghetto residents?

- Aside from evaluation, what other kinds of research might be appropriate?

- Can white professionals successfully conduct educational programs in urban ghettos in the late 1960's? What changes in methods and attitudes will be necessary for a staff accustomed to working in rural areas to enable them to work with city people? What have Cooperative Extension staff members already learned by working in Rochester, Buffalo, and Albany? Can volunteers be recruited in urban areas to lead extension groups, following the traditional extension pattern? What are other agencies with similar objectives doing in urban areas?

- What are the strengths and weaknesses of paid non-professional leaders in an extension program? What can they do in a program that the professional can't do? What kind of training do they need? What kind of relationship will they have to the agency after the training period?

- Is it possible to work in a housing project without being identified with management? Is it appropriate for a college group to conduct a program for housing management or should management provide needed services?

- What motivation is required to get low-income families to participate in the kind of educational program home economists can offer? What teaching methods are successful with low-income, poorly educated families? Have they the same drive for material success and the same aspirations for their children as have middle-class people? Would it be feasible to pay people to participate in programs or research?

- How much of what is taught to middle-class homemakers is possible for ghetto residents to carry out, in view of their storage facilities, shopping opportunities and cash income?

- Are the household management problems of low-income families primarily due to lack of knowledge, to emotions, attitudes or value systems, or to external physical conditions?

- Within the setting of an anti-poverty program or an extension program can home economists bring about any significant change in the practices of "chronic" poor housekeepers?

We found that many programs were in operation, that home economists across the country were showing concern for the poor, and were reporting on their efforts at conferences. Very little evaluation was available except in terms of participation and impressions of participants and observors.

Because of the special interest of the FACT group and the Cooperative Extension staff in the evaluation of training in home management, teaching homemaker services, and work with chronic poor housekeepers, the sections devoted to these topics present a more nearly complete picture of what is available than the other sections, which provide examples rather than complete pictures.

Within each section entries are arranged alphabetically by author, with entries by corporate authors coming last and being listed by title. In general unpublished papers, progress reports and speeches are indicated by quotation marks, while published pamphlets and books are underlined. Since the main purpose of this bibliography is to help people in several fields locate and make use of widely scattered, recent materials we have included some information about availability and price as of July 1968 for papers not likely to be found in libraries or commercial catalogues. When possible we have given a published reference, though in some cases more detailed information about research procedure and programs can be obtained in temporary form from the principal author.

It cannot be claimed that the references in this bibliography provide the answers to the questions raised by the FACT committee. What they do provide is a guide to the efforts being made by many people with the same concerns.

I. As stated above, the entries in the first section are intended to provide a framework in which to place the various programs in which home economists are asked to participate.

II. The second section gives examples of specific programs intended to benefit poor people, using one or more of the strategies identified in the first section, with a focus on the fields included in home economics. We have looked for programs where the emphasis is on education rather than on therapy or action, but the distinctions are not always clear.

III. The third section includes examples of the efforts of social agencies to help families with many of the same problems that concern home economists. Examples are also given of multiservice programs in which the efforts of specialized agencies are brought together.

IV. The fourth section brings together material on adult education, literacy training, and training for employment.

V. A special section here is devoted to "indigenous non-professionals." Material is drawn from several professional fields in the belief that home economists who are selecting, training, and supervising "aides" can benefit by knowing what is being learned about the employment of sub-professionals in other fields. Articles are included that point out both benefits and difficulties and that illustrate different approaches to training. In general, entries suitable for illustrating intervention programs are included in the earlier sections, even though they give some additional insights into the contributions of non-professionals.

VI. The section on research is included to illustrate the types of research that can be done in relation to poverty programs, the special problems in research with low-income families and in the field where programs are conducted. We have not included statistical reports on the incidence of poverty and unemployment. It is assumed that this type of study is now well known.

Particular attention is given to evaluative research because of the recurrent mandate to include "evaluation" in massive humanitarian programs, the deceptively simple sound of the term, and the need for persons attempting such research to find out the prerequisites and the pitfalls early. At the beginning of this survey it was hoped that it could be limited to projects where well-designed evaluation research had been conducted. So little has been reported that it seemed appropriate to examine the obstacles.

VII. A section on Urban Extension lists some recent reports and ideas on the proper role of the university, and particularly of extension personnel, in urban settings and in relation to urban problems.

VIII. The final section lists a few of the special issues of journals and some of the relatively new periodicals and sources of information which may not yet be widely known to persons looking for new approaches to poverty and reports on the outcome of intervention programs.

I. THEORETICAL ANALYSIS OF INTERVENTION STRATEGIES

1. GLADWIN, Thomas. Poverty U.S.A. Boston: Little, Brown and Company. 1967. 182 pages.

The New Deal in the 1930's and the War on Poverty in the 1960's had in common their reliance on three major strategies, witness, social competence, and structural change, to bring about "directed culture change." The degree of reliance on one strategy or another depended to a great extent on the composition of the target population.

Witness is used to mean changing deep-seated attitudes and values held by society at large toward the poor. In the War on Poverty this strategy is based on a conception of poverty as a way of life from which people solely by their own efforts cannot escape and which is not their fault. The target population in New Deal days comprised the recently unemployed with middle class attitudes, accustomed and willing to work and able to make use of opportunities, both to work and to organize for effective political action.

The right of the poor to be heard and to have equal opportunities, not firmly established before the New Deal, has been recognized, and since World War II has been reinforced, by the Civil Rights movement. Analysis of the War on Poverty's assumptions and strategies is complicated by its close relationship to the Civil Rights movement. Prime target populations for the War on Poverty have been ethnic minorities whose poverty is at least partially the result of discrimination.

Social Competence, defined as "enhancing the capabilities of the poor," (p. 16) has been the strategy employed in the bulk of OEO and related programs, in contrast with the New Deal, in which only the CCC and a handful of WPA and other programs had training objectives. The War on Poverty emphasizes occupational training, formal education from Head Start up, and training and utilization of indigenous workers for subprofessional roles in agencies serving other poor people.

Training programs have been disappointing because most have overlooked the emotional support needed by a really poor person brought up in "the culture of poverty" if he is to succeed in making the drastic change of role necessary to acquire a skill and hold a competitive job.

Structural change consists of changing the political and social structure to make sure that newly opened avenues of opportunity will remain open in the future. The New Deal, with a series of reforms instituted from above, put major reliance on structural changes that altered the distribution of money and power, as in the Social Security system, the NLRB, and farm price supports.

Gladwin has less confidence in the lasting effect of structural changes emphasized by the EOC--i.e., the stress on maximum feasible participation by the poor in decision-making and community development, in the sense of organizing people in a community for mutual help, democratic cooperation, and fostering a feeling of self-worth. Community development has not succeeded in generating "major, meaningful and lasting social and economic reform in conformity with the expressed wishes of poor people." (p. 168)

Forces that keep individuals and groups from attaining power are lack of money, discrimination against minorities, and lack of social and occupational skills. Ways in which being poor and having no credit prevent advantageous shopping and other economic advances are described, as are the effects of repeated exposure to discrimination, generation after generation, and year after year.

The central argument of the book is that "the social reforms necessary to make poverty avoidable and remediable" (p. 176) cannot be carried out simply by giving the poor new skills, organizations, and hope. "...these reforms can be implemented only by forces greater than those conceivably available to poor people, however well organized. These reforms must furthermore reallocate power, and above all money and the power that flows from money, within our society or else the poor will remain forever poor." (pp. 176-177).

Though Gladwin believes most voters feel no need for great reforms, the urgency with which he views the need is suggested in the title of the final chapter, "Evolution, Revolution, or Disaster."

Some of the reforms suggested are designed to attack the immediate causes of poverty:

1. The guaranteed annual income;
2. Welfare programs that would give poor people resources for self-help and self-improvement;
3. Educational reforms.

Others would increase opportunity and improve the use of human resources, particularly by improving the recruiting and training of workers and the purchase and delivery of service in the service occupations in which there are labor shortages.

2. LAMPMAN, Robert J. "The Anti-Poverty Program in Historical Perspective," a paper presented to the UCLA Faculty Seminar on Poverty, Feb. 25, 1965, mimeographed, 13 pages. PHRA, 1:1 (Jan.-Feb. 1966), Abstract No. 5. (Original not seen.)

The British background and American heritage of poor laws are reviewed.

Four "strategies" for dealing with poverty are identified:

(1) "To establish and facilitate the working of a market system." The trend has been toward more government action in the areas of transport and communication, land use, advance of science and technology and health and education.

(2) "To adapt the system to the needs and interests of the poor."

Here are listed many laws regarding property rights, regulatory bodies, and collective bargaining.

(3) "To adapt the poor to the market and improve their ability to seize opportunities to earn. This strategy has two objectives: to change attitudes, values, motivations, and life style of the poor, the other is to develop practical productivity."

(4) To relieve "the distress of the poor . . . 'transfer payment' and 'non-factor income' are replacing the term 'relief.'"

A full-fledged anti-poverty program must take into account all four strategies. Poverty has been reduced to a much smaller problem than ever before.

3. LAMPMAN, Robert J. "Ends and Means in the War Against Poverty," Poverty Amid Affluence, ed. Leo Fishman, New Haven and London: Yale University Press, 1966. pp. 212-229. Reprinted as #3 in the Reprint Series of the Institute for Research on Poverty, The University of Wisconsin.

In adopting the Economic Opportunity Act, Congress set as a national goal the reduction of poverty at a faster rate than would occur simply from the gradual growth of the economy. This decision was consistent with earlier adoption of the goals of full employment, economic growth, and equality of opportunity. However, it leads to questions such as: "What goals or values are we willing to compromise for a gain in the speed of poverty reduction?" (p. 215)

The poverty problem should be distinguished from other problems such as lack of education or housing, which are not exclusive to the poor. Programs to solve these problems may be good, but may distract attention from finding out whether the primary purpose of poverty reduction is being accomplished and, if so, whether the program has anything to do with it.

Goal-oriented thinking about national policy is different from theories that see government simply responding to pressure groups.

Three major theories of the causes of poverty lead to preferences for different means to the goal of poverty reduction.

"One theory is that poverty arises out of failure to achieve the general goals of our democratic, capitalistic system. Hence the remedy is to make the existing system work better in achieving full employment and economic growth. A second theory is that the cause of poverty is in the failure to adapt the system to the needs of the poor and that the remedy is to be found in new regulations, service programs, and cash payments for the poor. A third theory is that the basic cause of poverty is in the culture, informal social organization, and personal socialization of deprived individuals, and that hence remedies must be sought in ways to remake or change the poor--their motivations as well as their abilities--and adapt them to the needs of the system." (p. 216)

Each of these ideas is elaborated upon and used to suggest ways of finding out whether a chosen method has reduced poverty. For example, economists disagree as to whether general growth of the economy will increase or decrease the poverty of the "hard core." Lampman favors both efforts to increase total employment and economic growth and also anti-poverty programs of a selective character.

"This review of the possible methods to use in an antipoverty campaign with reference to broad theories of causation has cast up a range of testable, predictive propositions. They can be formulated thus: if we do this, poverty will be reduced, or the poverty income gap will be narrowed. The policy variables touched upon include monetary-fiscal policies, area redevelopment, minimum wage laws, demogrants and tax revision, public work, immigration and population policies designed to reduce the numbers of the poor, plans to minimize isolation and concentration of the poor, rehabilitation and special health and education efforts, and self-help organizations of the poor. Of course, the choices may be thought of as combinations of several of these variables." (pp. 225-226)

"Some proposals will have great appeal because they appear to relate closely to certain values, aside from income adequacy, e.g. self-reliance, family solidarity, fair prices or wages, local autonomy or states' rights, voluntarism, or community spirit and fellowship." (p. 226)

Selecting the methods to use requires judgment similar to that required to set the goal of poverty reduction. Some methods result in higher payments to the non-poor than to the poor. Others benefit one type of poor rather than another. Still others appear to be closely related to other values aside from income adequacy. These can all be considered political considerations.

In addition, the relative effectiveness of different methods should be considered. When all the benefits and costs are known, a cost-benefit ratio can be computed. But so far we do not have the information about causal relationships that would make a cost-benefit analysis meaningful. A form for estimating benefit-cost ratios for any particular anti-poverty program is included but difficulties in estimating both benefits and costs are stressed in the text.

Over a period of time there may be changes in the goal of poverty reduction, in the list of possible means, and in the estimates of benefits and costs.

The priority of the anti-poverty goal among other national goals has to be considered. It is justifiable only as a means to the more fundamental goal of increasing "the potentialities and the dignity of the human condition." (p. 229)

4. LAMPMAN, Robert J. "Prognosis for Poverty." A paper prepared for the National Tax Association, Pittsburgh, Pa., Sept. 15, 1965, 17 pages. PHRA, 1:1 (Jan.-Feb. 1966), unnumbered and unpaged abstract. (Original not seen.)

"Three ways to reduce poverty have been and can be used:

1) increase potential productivity and employability of poor;
2) increase employment of poor at existing level of potential;
3) transfer money income and services to the poor."

OEO emphasizes "improving potential productivity of the poor."

The remainder of the paper is about stabilizing unemployment at a low level, increasing social security coverage and tax innovations.

5. LIPPITT, Ronald, Jeanne Watson, and Bruce Westley. The Dynamics of Planned Change--A Comparative Study of Principles and Techniques, ed. Willard B. Spalding. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1958.

"The subject of this book is planned change--that is, change which derives from a purposeful decision to effect improvements in a personality system or social system and which is achieved with the help of professional guidance. In the following pages we have undertaken a comparative study of the principles and techniques which furnish the basis of the work of the various types of professional helpers concerned with such change. In addition to the concept of planned change, terms such as change agent, client system, change forces, resistance forces, phases of change, and methods of change are discussed. It is upon the fundamental ideas indicated by these terms that this book is centered." (Preface, p. vi)

This work was heavily influenced by the earlier work of Kurt Lewin.

6. MILLER, S.M. "The American Lower Classes: A Typological Approach," New Perspectives on Poverty, eds. Arthur B. Shostak and William Gomberg. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1965. pp. 22-39.

Two approaches to defining the "lower class" are common. One emphasizes the characteristics of the class, especially economic role or income. The other emphasizes "cultural" or "status" criteria, such as the family's style of life. The first is associated with Hollingshead and the second with Walter Miller and most social workers.

The purpose of this paper is to call attention to variations among the poor, both in their degree of economic stability and their degree of family stability. The paper includes references to other systems of classification. Miller has developed a 4-cell analysis, with economic security and family stability the two variables. There is variation within cells and movement from one to another.

The four cells, or types are described:

Type I, the Stable Poor have both economic security and family stability. (An income can be secure though low.)
Type II, the Strained have a secure economic pattern, but unstable family pattern.
Type III, the Copers combine economic insecurity with family stability.
Type IV, the Unstable have both economic insecurity and family instability. (Not all in this group are "hard core.")

Three basic approaches, or strategies, have been used in poverty programs:

a. Direct economic change, such as better employment.

b. Direct services such as casework or family assistance through visiting homemakers.

c. Indirect change brought about by changing the climate--social, psychological or political--in the neighborhoods where poor people live.

It is important to understand the different types of poor people because different remedies are more successful with different types. The concept of "elasticity," reintroduced into sociological thinking by Gosta Carlsson, means "capacity to respond." For example, income elasticity refers to a situation in which a small change in income produces a big change in behavior. Some respond to education or casework more readily.

The unstable poor (in "Cell 4") are not much helped by improvement in general economic conditions. This group has been getting a lot of attention and some are properly called the hard-core, multiproblem type. Specific programs should be aimed at this group. Routine welfare services are insufficient and it is not clear how much long-term success usual case work services will have. Improving the educational achievement of youth may be more important in the long run than a diffuse effort to achieve better family functioning.

With all three basic strategies it is important to make clear exactly who is the target population and to find out what works with what population.

Personal instability may be a result as well as a cause of economic instability. The problem is to find the effective way to cut into a repetitious pattern to cause change. Miller thinks the recent emphasis on "the culture of poverty" has been excessive and has resulted in neglecting the need for structural change.

This paper originally appeared in Social Research, Vol. 31:1 (Spring 1964), and was reprinted in Reprint Series, Syracuse University Youth Development Center, 1964.

7. MILLER, S.M. and Martin Rein. "The Demonstration as a Strategy of Change," paper presented at the Columbia University Mobilization for Youth Training Institute Workshop, April 30, 1964, 78 pages. PHRA, 2:1 (Jan. -Feb. 1967), p. 77. (Original not seen.)

Demonstration projects "grow out of an awareness that institutions must change, but also an unwillingness to commit society to uncertain policies to effect that change.

"An analysis of the demonstration project as a concept well adapted to gradual social change also reveals certain inherent problems. Projects can fail because of inappropriate scope, reliance on local initiative and responsiveness, and mistakes in adaptation. They can have impact by developing techniques and strategies, illustrating effective actions, mobilizing competing resources, and energizing professionals, organizations, and communities....

"At present, demonstration projects are not fulfilling their role as policy contributors and evaluators. Demonstration projects could be strengthened by bringing together funding agencies and professionals, clarifying to the community the intention of the project, a greater specification in the original funding agreement, maintaining well-directed quality programs, avoiding a focus on a one-time change, educating the board of the project to accept conflict as a mode of change, and exploring all the research possibilities the demonstration project has to offer.

"If the demonstration is to make a contribution to the great debate on national social policy, steps must be taken to define and strengthen its role." (PHRA, p. 77)

8. REIN, Martin and S.M. Miller. "Poverty Programs and Policy Priorities," Trans-Action, 4:9 (September 1967), pp. 60-71.

Successful strategy is needed, as well as financial resources, to win the war on poverty.

This paper first lists the choices that have to be made in deciding which anti-poverty programs should have support and which among them should have priority. It then indicates factors that have been, and should be, considered in making policy decisions. These factors are roughly grouped as value judgments, estimates of effectiveness in accomplishing the purpose of the program, and estimates of political feasibility.

Most anti-poverty programs now in effect or proposed come under 6 major headings, which "can be conceived of as attempts to change environment (amenities); to change occupational chances (investment); to change the pattern of claims on income distributed outside the market (transfers); to change people (rehabilitation); to change the distribution of power (participation); and, finally, to change the performance of the economic system (economic measures)." (p. 64) Each is illustrated.

Value judgments and political considerations not only do, but should, enter into decisions.

Poverty is defined in several ways in addition to lack of money. The definition chosen may imply a theory about the cause of poverty and also the preferred program to overcome it. It may mask other objectives besides reduction of poverty which may really be the primary goals of the advocate.

a. Poverty and social decency. By this definition, the lack of housing, medical care, etc. is poverty.

b. Poverty and equality. By this definition, reducing poverty requires reducing inequality--both in the gap between upper and lower income groups and in equity in distribution of government benefits.
c. Poverty and mobility.
d. Poverty and social control.
e. Poverty and social inclusion (power).

Stated differently, policy choice may be guided by considerations of equity, concern for other social objectives such as housing or economic growth to which reduction of poverty is subordinate, or by concern for therapy intended to change the behavior of the poor.

There will inevitably be times when various goals conflict and it is necessary to set priorities. Poverty reduction may compete with other national goals like controlling inflation. The various social goals with which poverty reduction is associated compete for funds.

Effectiveness should be a major consideration in determining policy, but cannot be isolated from discussion of purpose and political feasibility. Frequently it is impossible to get a clear statement of purpose, so no test of effectiveness is possible. When evaluations are made they are often negative. Even so, political acceptability may make a program feasible and sometimes there are beneficial side effects, even if no proof of poverty reduction.

Political feasibility involves the question of whether we are willing to commit adequate resources and change our institutions drastically enough to make an anti-poverty strategy work (example: occupational training). It also involves disguising other objectives because the claim of reducing poverty is politically acceptable.

In fact, cause-and-effect relationships between programs and poverty reduction are rarely substantiated by studies, though the side effects of the programs may be beneficial.

Cost-benefit analysis is a device for making decision-making more rational but is not an adequate substitute for value judgments, which should still be made through open political processes.

The usefulness of cost-benefit analysis is limited by technical problems such as calculating future benefits but its major deficiencies are in its inability to define goals or to provide a way to choose among goals through an open political procedure.

"The search for 'rationality' cannot avoid the issues of objectives and ideologies." (p. 71)

See also: Rein and Miller, "Poverty, Policy and Purpose: The Axes of Choice," PHRA, 1:2, (Jan.-Feb. 1966), pp. 9-22.

9. RIESSMAN, Frank. "The Strengths of the Poor," New Perspectives on Poverty, eds. Arthur B. Shostak and William Gomberg. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., pp. 40-47.

The "noble savage" image is misleading in discussion of the strength of the poor. Misplaced arguments about pros and cons of middle-class life crop up in such discussion.

"...Those espousing the current anti-poverty trends aiming at helping the poor through social action by the poor on their own behalf (self-help, so to speak) must consider the positives of the poor (as well as the plight of the poor) or else face an enormous contradiction in their thesis." (p. 41) Without pressure from the poor..."revolutions" in education, etc. will be weak. "...the strength of poor must be transformed into the power of the poor." (p. 42)

"The strengths of the poor arise out of their efforts to cope with an essentially negative environment." (p. 42) For example, the female-based extended family structure--in which females band together to share home management, child rearing, earning and living--is a "powerful coping device." Strengths are listed and implications drawn for education.

10. WINSTON, Ellen. "The Government's Role in Social Intervention," Welfare in Review, 5:1 (Jan. 1967), pp. 1-8.

This paper summarizes a major report, "Having the Power, We Have the Duty," issued after 2 years of study, by the Advisory Council on Public Welfare appointed by the Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare.

The report makes 11 recommendations--2 of which are:

1) assure a standard minimum level of income to all--by subsidy on basis of need--discard most other eligibility criteria;

2) public welfare should offer a variety of other services to low- and subsidized-income persons, including help with money management, housekeeping practices, etc.

II. INTERVENTION STRATEGIES, HOME ECONOMICS

A. Home Management Instruction

1. CHILMAN, Catherine S. and Ivor Kraft. "Helping Low-Income Families,... Through Parent Education Groups," Children, 10:4 (July/August 1963), pp. 127-131.

The Children's Bureau's definition of parent education stresses education rather than group counseling or therapy. It excludes programs focused on literacy, vocational skills, or academic education. It includes those focused on family relations, child care, family budgeting, meal planning, and other tasks of family life.

This paper summarizes the practical advice of professional people in many types of agencies offering programs in this field.

2. HUNTER, Starley. Change and Progress, A Comparative Study, Housing Project Survey 1964-66, St. Louis, Missouri. 47 pp.

Available: Mary Nell Greenwood, Director, Continuing Education for Women, University of Missouri, 124 Whitten Hall, Columbia, Missouri 65201.

In 1964 a bench mark was established by surveying 25% of all households in a low-income housing project (Carr-Square) in St. Louis. The survey covered demographic data, attitudes and practices with respect to money management, other aspects of home and family care, and exposure to and use of Cooperative Extension material through mass media, classes, and leaflets.

During the following 2 years the area was saturated with extension materials and classes. In 1966 the same project and 3 nearby low-income projects were surveyed to measure changes and to determine which sources of information had been most effective. A random sample of residents differed very little from the 1964 sample, but there were many differences between the random sample and a sample of women who had attended extension classes, both in family composition and in knowledge and use of the subject matter of the extension materials and classes.

Analysis of the effectiveness of each part of the program showed, for example, a quick response to clothing classes and much slower changes in money management, even though the program was adapted to the higher percentage of families who had debts and difficulties with management.

"Flyers and leaflets provided information to a higher proportion in the random sample than any other one method. Television was second in importance; newspapers were third; and the Housing Digest fourth.

"Classes supplied the women who attended more information and deeper understanding than any other method. Flyers and leaflets were second in importance. . ." (p. 8)

Classes were conducted by extension home economists. Aides are mentioned but not as a major part of the program.

The programs were directed at, and offered to, the entire housing-project population, not to a group selected because of special problems.

Conclusions concerning Management Program:

"Improved management is vitally important to many families regardless of the economic level. However, it takes time to create awareness of what improved management can do for families. . . . Some of the low-income homemakers consider their situations so intolerable they are not able to face them constructively. Probably a long period of close, personal contact with the educator will have to elapse before many of them will become sufficiently well informed to start working on their management problems. It may be possible to bring faster change in planned spending, management of the time of family members, methods of housekeeping, if leaders or aides can be used to keep close personal contact and provide information and encouragement when either or both are needed. . . ." (p. 44)

3. KENNEDY, Jerline. "Homemaking Education for Needy Families in the Dallas Community," Working with Low-Income Families, Proceedings of the AHEA Workshop, Chicago, March 15-19, 1965. Washington, D.C. 20009: American Home Economics Assoc., 1600 Twentieth St. N.W., 1965, pp. 129-134.

In Dallas there has been for years a home management program, jointly sponsored by public schools and housing authority.

The report includes a detailed description of a varied program for adults and informal evidence of the program's effectiveness.

4. KRAFT, Ivor and Catherine S. Chilman. Helping Low-Income Families Through Parent Education - A Survey of Research. Children's Bureau, No. 0-263-455, Washington, D.C. 20201: Social and Rehabilitation Service. 1966. 70 pp.

This pamphlet is research-oriented and is a companion piece to the Children's Bureau publication, Parent and Family Life Education for Low-Income Families, (Shoemaker) which is intended to be a guide or handbook for practitioners. (See #6, p. 16.)

As usual in Children's Bureau publications, "parent education" includes many aspects of family life, but does not include casework and therapeutic techniques. Thus, the most frequent type of program surveyed was one intended to improve home management.

Very few projects were found in which a careful research design had been a part of the original plan. Many projects are described with comments on difficulties encountered, successes, and weaknesses in the type of evaluation that is possible.

The conclusion is that no clear-cut recommendation can be made at this time as to the usefulness of parent education in working with low-income families. "Since it is generally conceded that organized efforts to reach low-income families require patience, skill, and perseverance in the face of frequent absence of response, it is probably unwise even for highly experienced parent educators to undertake such efforts except on the basis of very careful planning and clearly adequate resources." (p. 36)

Also ". . . it is yet open to question whether parent education can serve as a basic means of combating the consequences of low-income family life. It is also a moot question whether parent education can serve with prominent success as a separate activity project in attacks on root causes of poverty in American Society." (p. 36)

The appendix includes reviews of some on-going programs, and a bibliography.

5. ROULS, Janalyce. Training Home Economics Program Assistants to Work with Low-Income Families. Federal Extension Service P.A. 681. Washington, D.C. 20402: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1965. 110 pp. 55 cents.

This pamphlet is a handbook for persons responsible for developing a training program for non-professionals who will be assigned to helping low-income families improve their home management skills and attitudes and their use of community resources.

"Program assistants" in Federal Extension Service terminology are paid or unpaid volunteer leaders who work directly with low-income families. They are called "aides" in other programs.

"Homemaker" means the woman or mother in the low-income family.

The manual is comprehensive, including sections on planning and initiating a program, selecting and training assistants, teaching aids, and a section intended as a handbook for the program assistants.

6. SHOEMAKER, Louise Proehl. Parent and Family Life Education for Low-Income Families: A Guide for Leaders. Children's Bureau, No. 434, Washington, D.C. 20402: U.S. Government Printing Office. 1965. 66 pp.

As in other Children's Bureau publications, "parent and family life education" is defined to include homemaking skills as well as child rearing and family relations. This publication is intended to be used as a handbook on methods of working with low-income people, starting with recognition that traditional methods have not been effective with this group. It is addressed to program planners.

Many "methods" questions are considered with advice based on experience and, to a more limited degree, on research.

Chapter II, "Some Basic Principles," lists 16 principles that were spelled out at a national "Consultation" in December 1964, sponsored by the Interdepartmental Committee on Children and Youth, starting with "attitude toward other people" and "beginning where people are" and ending with "continuity in working with group" and "recognition of limitations of family life education." (Federal Extension Service was represented in this committee.)

Chapter III, "Reaching Low-Income Families," starts with "personal contact is needed" and ends with the importance of belonging to a group as a way to fill human needs to belong and to give, with practical advice on arrangements, timing, invitations, etc.

Chapter IV, "Developing Program Content and Methods," deals with the question of how to adapt available technical knowledge and teaching methods to the low-income family.

Program content and method are regarded as tools, with the leader's use of himself in teaching and forming helpful relationships as the main tool. Examples are given of programs based on needs.

Other chapter headings are "Staff Development and Leadership Training," "Evaluation and Research," and "Cooperative Efforts Needed." There is also a selected bibliography of publications of federal agencies.

7. SPINDLER, Evelyn B., Bertha F. Olsen, and Margaret Oliver. "Program Aides for Work with Low-Income Families," Journal of the American Dietetic Association, 50:6 (June 1967), pp. 478-486.

Part I. Use of a Home Economics Program Aide. Evelyn B. Spindler, Nutritionist, Federal Extension Service.

Part II. Developing a Training Program for Program Aides. Evelyn B. Spindler.

Part III. Developing Leaflets for Use in Working with Families. Bertha F. Olsen, Chief, Technical Services Branch, Consumer and Marketing Service.

Part IV. Pilot Study in Alabama. Margaret Oliver, Program Leader, Home Economics, Federal Extension Service.

The Federal Extension Service is encouraging the use of non-professionals as "program aides" to bridge the gap between professional home economists serving as Cooperative Extension agents and low-income families and to extend the efforts of the professionals.

Recognizing limitations as well as strengths, the F.E.S. has helped develop criteria for the selection of aides in a project in Alabama.

Non-professionals, either paid or volunteer, trained to teach others are called home economics program aides to distinguish them from housekeeping and home health aides who perform direct services. They are taught to begin with one-to-one teaching in homes and gradually to try to get women into groups. The pattern recommended is to teach the aides a planned lesson on a selected topic each week, and have them teach the same lesson to the families assigned to them before the next lesson.

The training course described here focuses on nutrition, with different sets of materials prepared for the agents, the aides, and families with limited reading ability. Leaflets and lessons focus on a well balanced diet based on low-cost foods, including use of donated food and food stamps. Leaflets can be obtained from the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.

Logs kept by the aides are used to help evaluate their work, to help the professionals to plan further training and to know more about the families helped. Success with aides depends on their training and supervision.

8. TRIPLETT, June L. "A Women's Club for Deprived Mothers," Nursing Outlook, 13:1 (January 1965), pp. 33-35.

The Pine School project was a longitudinal study. It was designed to ". . . study children with endogenous or familial mental retardation and their families. Provisions were made to record the effects of altering the environment in a variety of ways in an attempt to counteract the environmental deprivation thought to be a part of their poor functioning." (p. 33)

"The school program . . . [provided] . . . these children [with] more stimulation and social experiences than they usually received in their own homes, ... At the same time . . . the multidiscipline team, including a pediatrician, social worker, public health nurse, special educator, psychologist, and home economist collected data and gave direct service, in accordance with their respective skills to the families." (p. 33)

One of the services offered the mothers was group work in a "women's club," which (at this writing) had met about twice a month for 5 years. Meetings were held in members' homes with another member helping with refreshments. For 2 years a home economist was primarily responsible and programs were mostly on homemaking skills. Later the public health nurse was responsible and had help from a county extension worker. Still later the public health nurse used the group as a teaching opportunity for student nurses who gave programs or nutrition, weight control, growth, and development.

Change in the club members has been observed but not measured precisely. Characteristics noted were: poor concept of self, lack of skills, loneliness, lack of concern for others, and a desire to improve.

The following results are listed:

"Not only have the families benefited from participation in the Pine School project, but the staff have learned a great deal as well. This knowledge needs to be applied to other groups to determine the validity of the approach. Some of the generalizations which need closer study are the following:

1. Women from low-income groups tend not to participate in organized community activities, but will attend functions at which they feel comfortable.

2. Not only do these women have emotional problems which interfere with

their effectiveness, but many lack the necessary knowledge and skills to be good homemakers.

3. Most women will need help with becoming group members--listening, staying on the subject, and allowing all members to be heard.

4. The women will demand specific answers to problems, rather than working from principles and generalizations.

5. Considerable adaptation of content may be necessary to make it useful to families of limited circumstances.

6. The amount and rate of change will vary from one woman to another, but it will be slow, with both setbacks and plateaus observable.

7. Since, to some of these people, life is a series of crises, many of them will need individual services from a variety of disciplines, in addition to the group experiences." (p. 35)

The recommendation is to add group experiences for socially isolated family members to present public health nursing programs.

9. WHITE, Gladys O., Alberta D. Hill, and Edna P. Amidon. Improving Home and Family Living . . . among Low-Income Families, Washington, D.C. 20402: U.S. Government Printing Office. May 1962. 24 pp. 15 cents.

"The Bureau of Family Services (of HEW), in cooperation with the Home Economics Branch of the Division of Vocational Education, Office of Education, has prepared this booklet to encourage joint action by vocational education and public welfare agencies in providing more adequate homemaking education to troubled low-income families. Attention is called to the resources available to State welfare agencies within State departments of education for teaching the fundamentals of homemaking." (Foreword)

"As used in this publication, the term 'home management' is the decision-making aspect of the comprehensive job of homemaking. This includes conscious planning, controlling, and guiding the use of family resources to achieve the kind of home life that is satisfying to the family and to society." (Foreword)

Chapters on "Special Problems in Teaching" and "How These Problems Have Been Met" should be helpful to extension personnel as well as to the home economics teachers employed by education departments to whom they are addressed.

Chapter 3 describes a visiting homemaking consultant program which combines the resources of the Divisions of School Extension and Home Economics of the School District of Philadelphia. At this writing the program had been in operation for 15 years and the consultants had learned how to go into new neighborhoods and what kinds of help were of lasting value. (For another description of this program see Hill, M. Esther-II-C-#5-below p. 33.) Other chapters discuss "Selecting Counties for Home Management Projects," "Planning with the State Education Department," and "The Supporting

Role of Welfare Agencies."

The appendix describes the origins of the Iowa Pine School Project for families with mental retardation, and especially the work of the home economists with individual families who became members of the group described in more detail by Triplett. (See #8 above)

10. WHITE, Gladys O. "Nature and Scope of Programs to Combat Poverty - Implications for Home Economists," paper given at Massachusetts Home Economics Association Low-Income Workshop, 1965. 11 pp. Not available.

Miss White, representing the Bureau of Family Services of the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, described several new programs to help poor families, in which home economists had a part.

A. The service of the United Planning Organization in Washington D.C., supported by the Office of Economic Opportunity, includes Consumer Education Centers, staffed by professional home economists and nonprofessional assistants and located in neighborhood centers. Programs included help with food, clothing, housing, and legal problems.

B. The official interpretation of Title V of the Economic Opportunity Act included provision for helping the families of men trained for employment so that the families' ability to manage money and home would increase as the men's employment status increased.

C. Examples are given of training programs under Title V which require the knowledge and skills of home economists. Title V has been used to train home management aides, bakery helpers, dietary kitchen aides, and aides in institutional care, food processing, meal planning and child care.

D. A pilot project in three pre-school community centers in West Virginia in 1964 included concentrated work with parents to help them improve their home management skills. Agencies collaborating in the project were West Virginia University, the Federal Extension Service, the Center for Appalachian Studies and Development, and the local and area Cooperative Extension offices. Extension agents interviewed families in their own homes, to provide data for a bench-mark study. At this writing, one year later, reports on the project indicated that both mothers and fathers were participating in training programs and were helping in the pre-school centers. Extension staff observed increasing interest among parents and some improvement in the condition of individual homes.

E. Noteworthy programs for young people have included a Consumer Education curriculum at the Lincoln High School in Yonkers, N.Y. and a Saturday Charm Course, including grooming, health and clothing, sponsored by the Ford Bend County, Texas, Cooperative Extension Service.

F. "In the Pruitt-Igoe Housing Project in St. Louis, Missouri, some women with fourth-grade educations and with no experience in clothing construction have been taught by home economics teachers and extension home economists; so now they are teaching sewing to other women in their neighborhood."

G. In a county in Tennessee, the county Welfare director and the extension home economist were successful in maintaining the interest of a group of women when they gave instruction in clothing construction, which was the major expressed interest of the group. Later it was possible to interest them in meal planning and preparation, which had been the major purpose of the professionals who formed the group.

11. WHITE, Gladys O. "Welfare Problems Arising As a Result of Poverty," Tennessee Public Welfare Record, published bi-monthly by the Tennessee Department of Public Welfare, 29:5 (October 1966). pp. 90-93, 105-106.

In this paper Miss White quotes research findings on results of poverty. She asks for more adequate financial support for welfare recipients.

The bulk of the article is used to point out ways in which home economists can help low-income families. Stress on determining what low-income women want rather than on what the home economist wants is unusual. There is need for success in simple projects and for new methods of teaching. Miss White makes three basic assumptions:

1. Democratic society is based on the concept of individual worth.
2. The family is the basic social unit which molds the individual for responsible citizenship.
3. Preserving family life must be a primary objective of public welfare.

12. WINSTON, Ellen. "Public Welfare and the Home Economist," Working With Low-Income Families, Proceedings of the AHEA Workshop, Chicago, March 15-19, 1965. Washington, D.C. 20009: American Home Economics Assoc., 1600 Twentieth St. N.W., 1965. pp. 155-161.

A survey found home economists employed by public welfare departments in 14 states and 16 big city agencies. Other welfare departments used home economists as consultants. New York City employed 43.

Home economists can make special contributions by working as citizens for more adequate public agency grants to clients and by giving professional help to persons needing to know how to make their money go further. Since the legal change enabling the federal government to pay 75% of the cost of homemaker programs many public welfare home management programs have been started. (Miss Winston noted 75 in the preceding year.) Home economists have helped in consumer education programs in many different settings. ". . . many (public welfare) agencies report success from AFDC mothers' clubs at which home economists show the mothers how to make good use of donated foods, how to plan better meals, and how to budget their all too few dollars for food and clothing." (p. 157) Teen-aged brides and elderly persons also need consumer education. Industry and public utility companies are giving consumer education courses for low-income families.

13. WOLGAMOT, Irene. "Helping Disadvantaged Families to Have Better Diets," Nutrition Program News, (January-February 1967). pp. 1-4.

Available: Consumer and Food Economics Research Division, Agricultural Research Services, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Federal Court Building, Hyattsville, Maryland 20781.

Low-income families are known to have inadequate diets as well as characteristics that make it difficult to help them. Research in the USDA shows that food consumption and dietary levels are related to income, household size and composition, urbanization, and education of the homemaker.

Advice to agents planning to work with low-income families is given under the headings, "Start Where They Are," "Develop Good Communications," "Develop Confidence," "Methods to Use," and "Group Work."

Methods recommended include: written materials only if short, simple, and pictorial; no lectures; demonstrations, especially if they help build self-confidence; projects suited to the abilities of the group, so that success is possible; use of low-cost familiar foods.

Guideline materials prepared by the FES for program aides and families are available from the Superintendant of Documents.

Professionals can reach more of the disadvantaged by working with groups, but individual contacts are usually necessary before low-income people will come to groups. "Successful groups involve the participants in planning, organizing, and conducting the meetings. . . . If you are wise, you will ask the disadvantaged what they want and you will listen--for this will put you way ahead in your efforts to develop a willingness on their part to change their nutrition practices." (p. 4)

In addition the efforts of professionals can be extended by working with non-professional workers, paid and volunteer, and by working with other agencies.

14. WOLGAMOT, Irene H. "What Home Economists are Doing for Low-Income Families," paper given at the New Jersey Home Economics Association Meetings in Atlantic City, November 12, 1964. Mimeographed, 9 pp. Not available.

This is a brief survey of a great variety of programs in which home economists have been participating, with examples from all around the country and some advice on techniques that have worked well--such as finding out from the women what kind of help they need and want.

New measures of progress are required, especially with almost illiterate persons.

Locations but no details are given for programs in which women are being trained to teach homemaking skills. (p. 5)

Money management, especially use of credit, is mentioned several times. (p. 6)

Job training for women and teen-age girls, and money management for wives of men in training programs are mentioned. Use of donated food is taught in Milwaukee in a mobile kitchen trailer owned by the city health department. (p. 4)

Research on patterns of living, food consumption, dietary levels, and values and motivation is encouraged.

A more recent paper by Mrs. Wolgamot, "Home Economists Work with Low-Income Families," given at the South Carolina Home Economics Area Annual Meeting at Charleston, S.C., February 19, 1966, also gives a variety of program examples but emphasizes effective methods. It touches on some of the relevant services of the USDA and Cooperative Extension services in many parts of the country. (See also #13 above)

15. "FAMILY Health Education Project for Migrants," Lucas County General Health District, Mimeographed Annual Report: Mg 35 D. Toledo, Ohio. 1966.

1966 was the fourth year of a project conducted in migrant farm workers' camps by the County Board of Health. Project objectives were to improve health and health practices, teach migrants their responsibility in the use and care of sanitary facilities, coordinate the efforts of many groups, and provide some medical care. The project staff worked with both migrants and growers to improve sanitation problems. Garbage and refuse storage and disposal rules were those most frequently violated. At the end of the 4th year, improvement was noted in sanitary conditions and coordination of community groups interested in helping.

The staff of the project consisted of a project director and project coordinator, 2 public health nurses, 2 health education aides, a sanitary inspector, a migrant project clerk, and many students. Some Spanish-speaking staff were considered essential. No home economists were employed. Families of 534 migrant workers were served, most of them Spanish-speaking, from the southern states and Puerto Rico.

Health Services included clinical and preventive work, and also educational work. The migrant ministry arranged supplementary services and classes of a traditional home economics type, e.g.--sewing class, with a style show at the end, and pictures taken by nurses.

Nurses visited the camps regularly and taught care of food--e.g., to prevent infant diarrhea, but had to compete with the belief of some parents and grandparents that the real cause of diarrhea was the evil eye. Nurses also taught volunteers who wanted to teach nutrition classes sponsored by the migrant ministry.

Health Aides taught "how to get more for their money."

The communications problem was a great barrier. The staff used felt boards to illustrate lectures on sanitation, flies, and disease for persons waiting at clinics. They also used films, including some taken of project families.

16. "HOMEMAKERS Help Families Adjust in Large Urban Renewal Projects," News, National Council for Homemaker Services, Inc., 4:3 (February 1968). p. 2 and "Services to Poor in New Jersey," Homemaker--Home Health Aide Bulletin, A.M.A. 9:1 (January 1968). pp. 2-4.

Homemakers employed by the Mercer Street Friends Center, a private organization, have helped families prepare for relocation from a big Urban Renewal clearance area to middle-class neighborhoods. In another area they have helped with efforts to upgrade a neighborhood.

Non-verbal demonstration methods were used, such as shopping with the mother, as well as planning work schedules, and teaching other home management skills.

Clients' acceptance of instruction was attributed

a) to the homemakers' identification with a voluntary agency, rather than any of the public agencies contracting for the service, and

b) to the respect and confidence the homemakers showed toward clients.

These two short reports on the same project are much alike, but the second one listed is more detailed.

B. Homemaker Services - With Responsibilities Other Than Teaching

1. ARNOLD, Irene L. and Lawrence Goodman. "Homemaker Services to Families with Young Retarded Children," Children, 13:4 (July-August, 1966). pp. 149-152.

Two New York City agencies, The Retarded Infants Services, Inc. (RIS) and The Association for Homemaker Service, Inc. (AHS), with support from the Federal Children's Bureau, conducted a 3-year demonstration program to show the potential contribution of homemakers and other home helpers in enabling families of severely retarded young children to make use of the professional help needed to make satisfactory long-term plans for the children.

This type of service should be considered in long-range community planning for the retarded.

Definitions of "homemaker" and "home aide"--as used by the Child Welfare League of America (Standards for Homemaker Service for Children, New York, 1959)--are quoted:

"A clarification of the two terms, 'homemaker' and 'home aide,' seems pertinent. According to the standards suggested by the Child Welfare League of America: 'The distinctive elements of homemaker service are (a) placement in the home of a trained homemaker employed as an agency staff member, who works together with a caseworker in carrying out a casework plan to help restore and strengthen parental functioning, or otherwise assure that the child has the care he needs; and (b) use of casework as an integral part of the service. . . .' Homemaker service, as thus described, is closely interwoven with casework.

"Home aides, as used by RIS, also are assigned and supervised by caseworkers, but the emphasis is placed on their ability to do light cleaning and cooking and their experience in caring for children, rather than on working consciously with the caseworker to help restore parental functioning. The family may concurrently receive some casework treatment focused on helping the parents reach the best plan for the child's care." (p. 150)

For a description of the research project, see notes on Arnold and Goodman in section III-A-1, p. 63.

2. BARRETT, Harold S. and M. Asenath Johnson. Homemaker Home Health Aide Services in Connecticut 1960-1965, Connecticut State Department of Health 500. Connecticut Health Bulletin, 80:2 (February 1966). Not available.

National interest in Homemaker Home Health Aide Services increased rapidly after 1960, as evidenced by action by the A.M.A. and incorporation of the National Council for Homemaker Services. Training was started by the Connecticut State Health Department in 1963, continued in 1964 and 1965, and a training manual was published.

By the end of 1965, 83.8% of the state's population had homemaker services available in their home communities, with only 2.9% of the service restricted to cancer cases. The increase was mostly among voluntary health agencies.

The State Health Department's role has been to assist new services as they were started--some financially, and all with consultation, assistance with training, and record keeping.

From 1960-65, the total number of homemakers and hours of service nearly quadrupled. About 1/3 of the persons served were welfare recipients.

Service was possible under Project Grant CH 07-4 under the Community Health and Facilities Act of 1961.

The Connecticut State Department of Health has a long series of publications on various aspects of Homemaker Home Health Aide Services, including historical development.

3. BARRETT, Harold S. Statistics & Cost Accounting for Homemaker Home Health Aide Services, A Manual of Uniform Procedures for Recording, Compiling and Reporting Data. Second Edition, Hartford, Conn.: Connecticut State Department of Health. November 1965.

Available: A limited supply from Harold S. Barrett, M.D., Deputy Commissioner, Connecticut State Department of Health, 79 Elm Street, Hartford, Connecticut.

In preparing this manual the State Department of Health hoped to obtain statistics on services and costs that would be comparable from one place to another and more meaningful than reports prepared by a variety of systems and with many different definitions.

The first edition of the Connecticut publication was based to a large extent on a manual prepared jointly by the New Jersey State Department of Health and Visiting Homemakers Association of New Jersey, Inc. The second edition incorporated changes needed for local use and for greater usefulness under the 1965 amendments to the Social Security Act.

Rapid growth of homemaker services showed the need for comparable statistics. Cost accounting is useful when funds are sought.

Chapter headings are:

I Statistical units and definition of terms
II Forms for recording statistical data
III Method of compiling statistical reports
IV Reporting statistics on the service
V Cost analysis as an administrative tool
VI Description of cost analysis method
VII Analyzing the results of the cost analysis.

Note: Because it is assumed that service is given primarily to families where there is illness, the report form calls for diagnosis, and some of the cost comparisons are on the basis of diagnosis. With this exception the forms probably could be adapted for teaching-type homemaker services.

Preparation of the manual was supported by Community Health Project Grant No. CH 07-4.

4. BARRETT, Harold S. Suggested Basic Orientation for Homemakers and Home Health Aides--Guide for Instructors. Hartford, Conn.: Connecticut State Department of Health. May 1966. 78 pages.

Available: Limited supply available from Harold S. Barrett, M.D., Deputy Commissioner, Connecticut State Department of Health, 79 Elm Street, Hartford, Connecticut.

This training manual is intended as a guide covering 20 hours of class work. It is fairly detailed, with emphasis on interpersonal relationships. Program directors are urged to provide additional training through supervision and in-service meetings.

Aides are trained to work with all income levels, and are taught not to try to change the family's own way of keeping house, cooking, etc.

There is, however, a lot about nutrition, clothing care, child care, etc., apparently for use when the aide is assigned to a family where she will have responsibility for management.

The section on the probable reactions of the mother, father, teen-age daughter, etc. to the presence of the homemaker is interesting and is not duplicated in other manuals reviewed in this survey.

There is also more about the homemaker's relationship to the agency, the supervisor, the physician, and the family than in training guides prepared from the viewpoint of the subject matter only. This seems appropriate when the agency organizing the training will also be responsible for the aides after the training. For example, there is a section on personnel practices and reporting on services. The prevailing point of view is expressed in the first section of the 1964 edition of the manual, Suggested Training Course for Connecticut Homemaker Services: "Basically, the homemaker's duty is to insure that the home continues to function as a home. In achieving this goal, her role in home management strengthens her role as temporary substitute parent. If there should be conflict between meeting a child's emotional needs or running a home smoothly, the child is given preference. Often, however, regularity, order, and comfort can help provide child reassurance and security." (p. 1)

5. BRODSKY, Mrs. Rose. "Homemaker Service in the Voluntary Agency for Families with Retarded Children." Paper presented at the National Conference on Social Welfare, Chicago, Ill., June 2, 1966. Mimeographed. 10 pages.

Available: Association for Homemaker Service, Inc., 432 Park Avenue South, New York, New York 10016.

The Association for Homemaker Service was organized in New York City in 1961, ". . . as a family centered casework agency with homemaker service as its sole function. It is a voluntary agency, independent, nonsectarian, non-profit, and city wide." (p. 2)

The service is varied, but the essential purpose is to help ". . . to maintain individuals and families in their own homes, where this is the best and most desirable plan to accomplish a health and/or social welfare goal." (p. 2) The intent is to provide a choice of services so that people are not forced into institutional care unnecessarily.

The service began with child care and expanded to include the chronically ill, the handicapped, and the elderly.

Homemakers ". . . are staff members, recruited, employed, trained, and supervised by the professional social work staff. . . . Nine homemakers are assigned to each caseworker. Together, caseworker and homemaker form an integrated team, each with her own discipline, to accomplish the goals of the service." (p. 3)

The homemaker's job has both psychological and concrete aspects. In this agency the job consists of carefully defined tasks, which have some of the elements of other services such as nursing and housework, and teamwork with the caseworker.

By 1964, the agency had 110 regular homemakers and 30 substitutes with appropriate professional staff. Rapid expansion was possible because service was purchased by several public and voluntary health and social agencies; such as the American Cancer Society.

See Irene L. Arnold and Lawrence Goodman, "Homemaker Services to Families with Young Retarded Children," reprint from Children, 13:4 (July-August 1966), pages 149-152, for a description of the project which was jointly sponsored by the Association for Homemaker Service and Retarded Infant Service.

6. BRODSKY, Mrs. Rose. "The Use of Homemaker Service to Meet a Variety of Needs," Presented at the 20th Annual Conference of the National Committee on Homemaker Service, 1960. Ditto. 17 pages.

   Available: Association for Homemaker Service, Inc., 432 Park Avenue South, New York, New York 10016.

   A Homemaker might be trained, certified, and employed privately as nurses are, and thus be available to the whole community.

   A Homemaker Service is a "service rendered by a nonprofit community sponsored health or welfare agency in situations involving a health and/or a welfare goal." (p. 3) The homemaker is part of the team carrying out the agency goals. Supervision should be by a professional--usually a social worker or a nurse.

   The professional person is needed to help a family determine which service to use. Homemaker service helps keep families together. It is often economical, also, compared to institutional or foster care, but the choice should be based on differential diagnosis. Use of homemaker service in 4 major types of situations is discussed in more detail: service for children, service for the chronically ill, service for the aged, and service in psychiatric situations.

7. MORLOCK, Maud. Homemaker Services; History and Bibliography. Children's Bureau Publication No. 410. Washington, D.C. 20402: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1964. 116 pages. 40 cents.

   This pamphlet traces the purposes and development of homemaker services of all kinds through 1963. The annotated bibliography, covering publications other than popular journals from 1903 to 1964, includes general descriptive articles; historical background; program descriptions under health, mental health, and social service auspices; the role of professional home economists, nutritionists, nurses, physicians, psychiatrists, and social workers; meeting the special needs of children and families, the elderly and chronically ill, and convalescents; and services in other countries. Additional sections cover training, guidelines and standards, personnel policies, appraisal of services, finances, directories, manuals, community organization, national committees and councils, and conferences.

8. WERNER, Adelaide A. "Homemaker Services," Encyclopedia of Social Work. 1965. pp. 381-386.

This article includes definition, history, beginning of federal support, national organization promoting, and growth of the service.

9. WINSTON, Ellen. Homemakers--A National Need. Paper delivered at the National Conference on Homemaker Services, Washington, D.C., April 29, 1964. 12 pages.

This paper describes and praises the work of homemakers and describes the kinds of situations in which they are useful.

The rapid growth in the number of agencies sponsoring homemaker services, the homemakers employed, and families served is detailed for the years 1961 to 1964. Impetus was given by 1962 amendments to the Social Security Act providing for 75% Federal support.

In 1963 one-fifth (945) of all the homemakers in the country were in New York City.

This discussion applies almost exclusively to the type of visiting homemaker who substitutes for the parent in time of crisis, not the "teaching homemaker."

C. Special Programs for "Chronic" Poor Housekeepers

Introductory Note:

Home economists have been called on repeatedly by health, education, welfare, and housing agencies to try to change the housekeeping habits of persons regarded as "chronic" poor housekeepers. Frequently, but not always, such persons belong to "multi-problem families", whose chief distinguishing feature is their imperviousness to efforts by others to change, or "improve", them. Many have large families, much illness, erratic work patterns, and low income.

In the decade before the War on Poverty a great deal of attention was centered on the "multi-problem family", especially after studies in St. Paul and elsewhere made it clear that an enormous percentage of the combined resources of all health, education, and welfare agencies in a community were devoted in a fragmented way to a very small percentage of families touched in any way by agencies.

Attempts to equate multi-problem families with any segment of the "culture of poverty" have been unsatisfactory, as have attempts to explain their origin and persistance. Even definitions are not uniformly agreed upon.

We have brought together in this section reports on various efforts to influence the home-management behavior of "chronic" poor housekeepers, as distinguished from general educational efforts directed at all low-income residents, or all residents of a given area.

Sponsors of such efforts are schools, courts, public and private social agencies, housing administrations, and others.

Professional leadership has been taken by home economists, social workers, and nurses. Some programs rely entirely on professional staff, while others rely on combinations of professionals and subprofessionals. Programs employing subprofessionals or "aides" typically include training for the aides, either by the program sponsor or a cooperating agency. These programs sometimes also involve close attention to definition of function and working relationship between professionals from different disciplines and between professionals and nonprofessionals.

The source of funds varies. The programs carried on for long periods have had public support, through school or city budgets, and more recently through the Community Action Program of the Economic Opportunity Program. Sometimes the funding agency contracts with a voluntary group to conduct the service. Other programs have been paid for as demonstrations, obtaining federal funds through NIMH, USPHS, or the Social and Rehabilitation Service of Health, Education and Welfare.

Motivation to participate when service is offered is one of the crucial points, with not much more than speculation to explain why some homemakers respond favorably after some initial resentment at being singled out and others resent and resist all such efforts.

In a number of projects, families invited to participate, or offered service, have been under threat of imminent eviction from housing projects because of housekeeping practices or failure to pay rent. In other cases the pressure has been from a court or public welfare department or school. We are unable to make a reliable comparison between the cases in which the pressure of authority was used to encourage participation and others. In all projects, even with serious penalties, some persons did not change. Some reports mention initial resentment followed by satisfaction in accomplishment and in group relationships.

Two themes that are suggested but not developed in many reports are the necessity for a strong personal commitment to make a change and the necessity for a strong one-to-one relationship with the professional or nonprofessional worker, frequently followed by a satisfying relation to a group.

Teaching techniques, materials needed, etc. are included in some reports. They differ from methods used with other groups primarily in the emphasis on working side by side with the homemaker, on the problem she is ready and willing to tackle, demonstrating and teaching but stopping when she stops so that the teacher is doing a good deal of the work but not the whole job.

Success is described in terms of the number who avoided eviction, who stayed out of court, whose children showed improvement in school, or whose social agency reported improvement in the appearance of the home. Careful measurement procedures with experimental and control groups were followed in only one project, and the outcome there was mixed--those who participated in the program improved more than did those who undertook to improve without the program but did not maintain their improvement for as long a time.

1. BATEMAN, Richard W. and Herbert J. Stern. "Housing Clinic for Code Violators," The Journal of Housing, 23:4 (April 1966), pp. 203-205.

Since 1960 Baltimore has had a Housing Clinic for tenants who have been convicted of violating the city building code but who are not habitual or malicious offenders. Actions of individuals were thought to affect the condition of the home, multiple dwelling, block, and community. The magistrate of the housing court offers a person a choice between paying a fine and attending the clinic (1½ hours per week for 8 weeks) while on probation.

The purpose of the clinic is to help tenants by providing information and motivation to enable them to cope better with urban life. Only 3 persons have reappeared in court after participating in the full clinic program.

The staff uses a combination of educational and group counseling methods, in groups of 20 to 25, with a home economist and a lawyer as resource people.

The typical client is a Negro woman, head of a family, who has lived in the city all her life, and has "numerous problems more severe than, and antecedent to, the violation of the housing code." (p. 204)

Curriculum has changed from preplanned content to problem-solving with problems selected by groups. Motivation to use knowledge seems more important than the absolute amount of knowledge.

Changes in attitudes observed were: ". . . from indifference to leadership; apathy to involvement; anger to concern; self-interest to community interest; self-neglect to self-concern; embarrassment and shame to understanding and pride." (p. 205)

In general, participants express satisfaction but would not have attended all sessions if not on probation.

"The question of the feasibility of using devices similar to the clinic with completely voluntary groups remains unanswered at this time. It is felt, however, that curriculum content and structure, group structure, and methods of relationship offer a model that can be adapted for free-choice groups." (p. 205)

Reports of attitude changes are quoted from an earlier report based on the first year's experience and confirmed by subsequent experience.

2. BURNS, Mary E. and Julia Ann Goodman. "The Teaching Homemaker in a School Project," Children, 14:5 (September-October 1967), pp. 170-174.

A 3-year "Pupil Adjustment Project" at the Lincoln Avenue School in Highland Park, Michigan (surrounded by Detroit), financed by the Office of Education of U.S. Dept. of HEW included a "teaching homemaker service to offer individual parents and parents in groups a program aimed at helping them make their homes adequate and orderly, . . . through instruction on homemaking in the home" (p. 171)

Two women with previous experience as teachers and case aides were employed as "teaching homemakers" under the supervision of the chief social worker, as members of an interprofessional team of caseworker, psychologists, and teachers. They were a key adjunct to the casework process.

A distinctive feature of this program is the attention given to clarifying the roles of caseworker and homemaker and emphasis on their relationship with each other as well as with the families served.

Details of work assignments, supplies, uniforms, and an analysis of activities are included, as well as case illustrations.

This project demonstrated the value of the homemakers in helping the whole staff achieve their goals with the socially maladjusted children assigned to the Lincoln school. Success in this demonstration led to provision of a homemaker service for selected families throughout the school district.

The exact method of evaluation is not described but apparently was by clinical judgment and observation rather than statistical measurement.

3. GASSETTE, Elizabeth W. "Homemaker-Teachers Assist in Low-Income Families in Hartford, Conn.," Working With Low-Income Families, Proceedings of the AHEA Workshop, Chicago, March 15-19, 1965. Washington, D.C. 20009: American Home Economics Assoc., 1600 Twentieth St. N.W., 1965. pp. 135-139.

In 1963, the city of Hartford allocated $35,000 to the Welfare Department to secure the services of teaching homemakers and supervisors from the Family Service Society. The supervisor at first was a social worker; later a home economist. Assistant supervisor was a successful teacher who was bilingual (English and Spanish). At this writing, the project had served 101 families including 587 children in 20 months. Families referred were those unable to maintain homes by acceptable community standards, in which the mother might benefit from having a teaching homemaker.

An additional allocation of money so more families could be served was considered evidence of success.

The program consists of a home visit by supervisor, followed by assignment of a homemaker-teacher who helps and demonstrates in the home 2 half days per week per family. She may continue for 2-3 months or a year depending on response.

The article includes a description of tasks the teacher helps mother to learn.

4. GOLDBERG, Gertrude. "Untrained Neighborhood Workers in a Social-Work Program," New Careers for the Poor, eds., Arthur Pearl and Frank Riessman. New York: The Free Press, 1965, pp. 125-154.

Mobilization for Youth, an anti-poverty corporation in NYC (Lower East Side), employed 15 women to teach low-income families greater competence in home management. Women were chosen who had been able to "cope" under the conditions faced by low-income families. Among the 15 women there were 6 Negroes, 6 white Puerto Ricans, an American of Cuban descent, a second generation Italian-American, and a first generation German-American. Their training used the case method, with sessions on skills regarded as refresher lessons. Selection, training, and employment were all supervised by the social work staff of the agency.

The report emphasizes the relationship between professional and nonprofessional staff, and human relationships more than formal instruction.

Most of the work was in homes, with individuals, but the homemakers also taught groups, informally.

The most significant task was teaching the newcomer, the young housewife, and the inadequate housewife how to exploit community resources. The nonprofessionals also helped educate professionals from other institutions, served as substitute homemakers, and furnished the apartment they used as a center.

Research interest was in the process of employment of non-professional indigenous personnel.

5. HILL, M. Esther. "Helping Low-Income Parents, . . . Through Homemaking Consultants," Children, 10:4 (July/August 1963), pp. 132-136.

The School District of Philadelphia, in 1963, had for 15 years run a homemaking-consultant program in low-income homes where housekeeping standards were far below average. The School District employed 9 professional adult-education teachers to work with individual mothers on whatever phase of homemaking was most urgently needed.

Details of supervision, scheduling, and techniques are given. Close coordination with referral source and other helping agencies is emphasized.

Individual work is followed by an invitation to join first a small group working on the same topic, and later a larger group.

Each consultant serves 42 families. Length of contact varies from 2 or 3 weeks to over a year. Each consultant has had to discontinue work with some families because they were not responding.

A special assignment to help 15 families in danger of eviction from a housing project was successful with 10, in a 5-week period.

Though there had been no formal evaluation, informal evaluation was constant, in the reports of consultants and expressions of other agencies. (A list of questions used by consultants as a yardstick of their success is given. These are not precise, and do not call for precise answers.)

There is some evidence that mothers who have been helped begin to relate to neighbors, community, and school. Results can be seen in better appearance of homes and better tenant-landlord relationships.

6. HUNGERBUHLER, Gertrud. Improving Substandard Homemaking Among Low-Rent Public Housing Tenants, Auraria Community Center. Community Organization Project, Denver, Colorado. Mimeographed, 1964, 17 pages and appendix.

Available: Auraria Community Center, 1212 Mariposa, Denver, Colorado. Out of print, Aug. 1968.

This is a detailed report by a graduate student in community organization at the Denver University School of Social Work who served as coordinator for a course in housekeeping methods for inadequate housekeepers living in a public housing project. This effort was one minor part in a 5-year project, "Intervention in the Face of Neighborhood Blight," financed by the NIMH, which stressed citizen participation in a wide variety of projects.

Unusual Features of this Report

A. Clear distinction between role of social worker, who served as coordinator, and role of home economist. The coordinator's task was to visit each of the women named by the management of the housing project, persuade them to come to the classes, steer the discussion in classes, and in the coffee hour following classes, and, in general, cooperate with the home economist who was the teacher, the housing project, welfare department caseworkers, and the homemakers.

B. Recognition of poor housekeeping practices as resulting from more complex emotional needs and deficiencies than a simple lack of knowledge. (Few of the women had husbands living with them.)

C. Participation by 2 of the class members in the evaluation sessions with agency representatives after the first series of lessons.

D. Frankness of recommendations:

1) Size of group and cost of program would be high if continued with a professional home economics teacher and social worker, though their roles were distinct. Seven of the 10 women invited came to 5 or more sessions. (Total was 8, plus a party.) Should invite more to have slightly larger class.

2) Authoritative approach. The coordinator concluded that a frankly authoritative approach by the Housing Authority as landlord might have been less confusing to the class members than hers, which had been a blend of an authoritative and a social-work approach and had aroused suspicion. Since the classes were planned in response to requirements of the community, the motivation was external.

3) Base program on needs. The coordinator recommended working with a group of women to develop a program focused on what the women felt were their own needs. The resentment of class members did not subside until after the first sessions in which their ability to share and contribute was recognized. Even in a program planned by the tenants, the community worker would continue to be "the guide and enabler."

4) Personal "reaching out" is essential to get the women to the classes. Written invitations, bulletin boards, brochures, etc. were of no value.

Similarities to Other Reports

A. Care for children in another room was considered essential.

B. Classes were held in an apartment in the project, similar in arrangement and equipment to the apartments where class members lived--i.e., close, and familiar.

C. Simple refreshments each time helped. Discussion continued but had to be steered by the coordinator to avoid useless repetition of ailments and to turn toward what could be done about the problems mentioned.

D. Class was small and informal with opportunity for members to tell how they had solved problems.

E. Class members showed a surprising responsiveness and leadership potential.

Comments:

There was no basis for predicting how long the improvement in housekeeping would last. The benefit seemed to be in the peer group relationship developed--thought to be the first such experience in which the peer group placed any value on good housekeeping. Women were enthusiastic at the end of the series.

Teachers and other staff found it frustrating to teach, knowing that some of what they taught was impossible for the class to carry out. For example, one lesson included a quick, efficient way to make beds and change bedding, though teachers knew some of the families were sleeping on bare mattresses and had no way to obtain sheets or blankets. Welfare department was giving 70+% of a subsistence budget, and the various sources for used clothing did not have bedding.

The report includes the lesson outline. Emphasis is on very simple supplies and equipment.

7. LEWIS, Harold and Mildred Guinessy. Helping the Poor Housekeeper in Public Housing, Summary report of a research demonstration project, 1961-1963. Friends Neighborhood Guild, Philadelphia, Pa., 1964. 35 pages.

Available: Friends Neighborhood Guild, 703 North 8th Street, Philadelphia, Pa. 19123, for $1.00.

At the request of the Philadelphia Housing Authority, the Friends Neighborhood Guild, a neighborhood house offering a varied program, conducted a program of services for families threatened with eviction from public low-rent housing projects nearby.

Study of the characteristics of good and poor housekeepers showed differences in the number of children. The poor housekeepers did not conform to the stereotype of women in multi-problem families, but often lacked skills. They especially lacked ability to organize their time and set priorities. Throughout the project an effort was made to get other members of the family to help with housework on a realistic level so that the mother would feel something was changing.

In general, women who placed the blame on people or circumstances outside themselves were less likely to change than those who recognized an internal problem and agreed to try to change. Those given service improved more, but not much more, than the control group.

The program included an initial home interview by the caseworker, in which the range of services was described and the woman encouraged to decide which one or ones to use. These included visits by a Homemaking consultant for one-to-one instruction and help, group meetings for mothers, for children, for teenagers, use of shop for the men, and counseling by a caseworker.

The service chosen most frequently was the help of the Homemaking Consultant, but mothers who came to the group sessions at all tended to continue.

Ratings were made in several ways before and after the service.

Most of the results were suggestive rather than conclusive.

The full report, dated September 1963, with 335 pages, goes into much more detail about the research, interview schedules, etc. The appendix includes a review of literature on poor housekeeping in the professional journals of home economics, housing, and social work, and in popular magazines; job descriptions of project staff; check list used for rating housekeeping practices; and administrative forms used to record each type of service.

This project is by far the most ambitious of its type found in the present survey, both in its emphasis on evaluation of results and its attention to possible causes and principles to be followed in attempting to influence housekeeping practices of poor housekeepers. It is mentioned in several secondary publications. The review of literature is the only systematic one found.

The full report can be borrowed from the Friends Neighborhood Guild.

8. MYERS, Nancy Moore. Home Managers Program, An Evaluation of the Home Manager Program of the Salisbury-Rowan Community Service Council, Inc. in Salisbury, North Carolina, November 1, 1966-May 1, 1967. Mimeographed, September 1, 1967, 45 pages plus appendix.

Available: Limited supply from Salisbury-Rowan Community Service Council, Box 631, Salisbury, N.C. 28144.

The Community Service Council, Inc. of Salisbury and of Rowan County, North Carolina, sponsored a "home managers" program with OEO funds. This evaluation of the program was made in 1967, after 1½ years of operation, using data from the entire period but concentrating on the most recent 6 months. An earlier study had established that attitudes and homemaking skills could be changed by the home manager program. (See Myers and Kivett, Evaluation-Home Managers' Program.) (See #9, p. 38.)

The purpose of the program was to teach better home management to low-income families by training and employing women from the areas served to be non-professional teachers of home economics. These "home managers" worked under the supervision of professional home economists. It was assumed that home managers, because of coming from disadvantaged areas, would almost automatically have rapport and empathy with families served. The evaluator suggests, however, that the program may in fact be handicapped by a lack of empathy between home managers and disadvantaged families, arising from the emotional deprivations and immaturities of both groups.

The home managers worked with individuals in their homes and also with small classes, with much better response to the visits than the classes. Classes were not effective in reaching employed women or women with young children.

The evaluation was made by a person not connected with the program. It was based on records kept by home managers about their daily activities, narrative reports by home managers, and reports by the supervisor, and also on the observations of the evaluator.

The analysis covered some characteristics of the home managers, but concentrated on characteristics of the persons served, sources of referrals, types of service given and subjects covered in teaching.

Several recommendations were made:

1. Arrange to "phase out" families who have received most of the benefits of the program or are unreceptive.

2. Give concentrated attention for a predetermined length of time instead of going on indefinitely with only an occasional visit.

3. Restrict "service visits" so home manager is not used as maid, chauffeur, or errand boy.

4. "Set limits as guidelines for the home managers." (p. 39) Encourage home managers to concentrate on teaching, and to take on "service" such as delivering used clothes only when directly related to the teaching.

5. Have more definite beginning and ending to class times.

6. Plan class material especially for the disadvantaged, with new material identified so clearly that the class will realize they are making progress.

7. Provide more of the materials for class experiences so that class can carry out the new activity at once.

Suggestions and comments dealt with interpretation of the program, teaching methods, and choice of home managers:

More stress should be put on probable educational benefits in setting criteria for accepting referrals. More planning of content, approach, and presentation of the class material may be needed to bring about a change. "The 'job' to be accomplished is much harder than that faced by the average teacher. . . ." (p. 42)

"When selecting new home managers, put greatest stress on the ability to have empathy with the 'poor.'" (p. 43)

Make the job definition of the home manager clear, simple, concise, and definite. Supervisor should be sure the home managers understand the job and understand why the supervisor has to know where they are and what they are doing.

9. MYERS, Nancy Moore and Vira Rodgers Kivett. Evaluation--Home Managers' Program, Salisbury-Rowan [County, N.C.] Community Service Council. Mimeographed, August 1967. pp. 134.

Available: Limited supply from Salisbury-Rowan Community Service Council, Box 631, Salisbury, N.C. 28144.

Ten women residents of rural poverty areas were selected, trained for 5 months and assigned to work individually with families referred by other agencies on a variety of home management problems, principally food, nutrition, child care, money management, and cleanliness.

Group lessons were also conducted and were open to all residents whether referred for service or not.

The program was sponsored by several county agencies, including Cooperative Extension. Help in planning the program, conducting the training program, and planning the evaluation was obtained from faculty of the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. Good community support is indicated in the evaluation.

The need for evaluation was recognized early in planning the program. The overall objective was "to evaluate the effectiveness of the Home Managers' Program by determining significant change in the knowledge, skills, and attitudes of recipient families and their subsequent contributions to community life." (p. 17)

Thirty-seven women who had had contact with this program were studied and compared with 35 who had been referred but not yet served.

Specific assessment methods were developed because no appropriate standardized instruments were found and almost no relevant "before and after" studies had been done.

Evaluation was done by independent persons, but was planned from the beginning. There is no indication of difficulty between persons conducting program and persons conducting research.

An 18-page survey-type questionnaire completed in a home visit, opinions of referring agencies, and other records provided the basis for confirming the homogeneity of the two groups and assessing differences attributable to contact with the home managers. Changes among participants since the beginning of the program were not dramatic--possibly because of the short period the program had been in operation and variations in skill among home managers. However, the following differences were found:

"Evidence of contact with the Program was seen among recipient women, who, more than non-recipient women, had: learned more homemaking skills during the past year, more variety in diet through the use of a wider range of economy foods; a wider use of dried milk; more family sharing of certain home responsibilities; less housekeeping problems; and had obtained information in more general areas of homemaking. Other change of note was seen in recipient women's acceptance of new recipes; practice of food preservation, recognition of certain of their own problems relating to children's attitude toward school and of homemaking." (p. 90)

The appendix includes the home survey questionnaire and report form used by referral agencies in the evaluation.

This is a serious attempt at evaluation of a new program. It includes a detailed report both on the program and on the efforts at evaluation. The study was handicapped by lack of "before and after" data for the participating group. The "level-of-living" of families served was well below the poverty line, and physical conditions were bad enough to shock the home managers who were themselves close to the poverty level.

Nothing is said in this report about "income adequacy." Nothing is said, either, about training home managers in teaching methods, though the subject matter of the training program is given and the variation in skill among home managers is mentioned.

The program "was based upon the premise that the teaching of better home management practices . . . is a realistic approach to the stimulation of ambition, desire, and sense of personal and community pride." (p. 1) It was intended "to end cross-purpose activity and a fragmentation of services among several county agencies." (p. 4)

10. RICE, Barbara S. "Education for Family Living," unpublished report, 1964.

Available: under title of Home Management Aide Training, 1964, mimeographed, 12 pages; Milwaukee County Extension Office, 9035 A Watertown Plank Road, Milwaukee, Wisconsin 53226.

A. The Milwaukee County Extension Service in 1962 began to train relief recipients for employment as home management aides (teaching homemakers). Training included selection and preparation of food for the family; home management; family financial management; clothing for the family--selection and care; and child care. Classes were held 3 times a week from 9:00 to 12:00 for 2 months. By 1964, 165 women in 9 classes had been trained. Trainees rated the use of the budget book of highest value.

Trainees were recruited by the Welfare Department, given extra allowances in their budgets for transportation and a working woman's food and clothing.

After training, the Welfare Department's Homemaking Service took responsibility for assigning homemakers to families needing help and for supervision. In 1964, 48 were working actively for the Welfare Department; 20 had found private employment.

Case workers report improvement in the homes to which aides have been assigned.

B. An apartment in the Hillside Terrace Housing project was designated by the Milwaukee Housing Authority as a demonstration center for residents. Cooperative Extension conducts classes there--not to train teachers but to improve skills of residents.

C. The Hillside Demonstration Center is used every afternoon for 4-H club meetings; volunteer leaders are trained by extension personnel.

Also available is a follow-up report, indicating that by 1967, 1066 women had completed the Home Management Training course. The course is one component of a work experience program, Project "OFF" (Opportunities for the Future) sponsored by the Milwaukee County Department of Public Welfare and University Extension. The follow-up report gives more detail about the administrative agreements between the Public Welfare Department and Extension than the earlier report.

11. WEINANDY, Janet E. "Case Work with Tenants in a Public Housing Project," Journal of Marriage and the Family, 26:4 (Nov. 1964). pp. 452-456.

The Syracuse Housing Authority collaborated with the Youth Development Center at Syracuse University in a three-year demonstration and research project financed by the Ford Foundation, beginning in 1960. The purpose was to help families regarded by management as "problem families" by employing a case worker to work closely with them long enough to refer them to appropriate community services for long-term help. The Housing Authority did not regard provision of routine social services as part of its responsibility but did already have one social worker for the city whose main assignment was to try to make existing services more readily available to tenants.

The demonstration project soon dropped its emphasis on referrals because the few agencies in the city equipped to work with low-income families were soon overloaded, and because "working with families long enough to ready them for referral usually meant the development of a relationship which was difficult to interrupt without destroying trust." (p. 453)

The project was carried on in one housing project, Pioneer Homes, with families selected by the housing manager. "Problems listed most frequently [by the manager] were late payment of rent, poor housekeeping and/or destruction of property, too many children inadequately cared for, and illegitimacy. . . ." (p. 452)

From the social work point of view there were three broad groups of problems. "The first was money management, which included severe indebtedness, lack of planning, impulsive buying, and, of course, lack of adequate income and dependency on welfare. The second was inadequate education, which resulted in lack of job skills, little motivation for advancement, and general ignorance about most phases of adult life--about preservation of health, child care in its physical and emotional aspects, household management, and above all, ignorance about physiology of sex and family planning. Finally, family relationships were a large problem area; most of these clients appeared to exercise little control over their own fate, in that they married young, often after having had one or more out-of-wedlock children, and the annual advent of a new baby did not cease even after the husband had become overwhelmed with his responsibilities and had left the home." (p. 452)

The method of approach was the aggressive, reaching-out type of case work. It was chosen because the typical private-agency pattern of formal appointments in agency offices for discussion of social and emotional problems was not reaching the multi-problem families, who would go to welfare agencies or clinics only for tangible help.

"It seems that one of the chief contributions which the Syracuse project has made has been the attempt to define the most effective techniques in case work with culturally deprived families." (p. 453)

The techniques used successfully were action, directness, practicality, giving, use of authority, coordinating, and interceding. Each of these techniques is defined and illustrated.

In three years, the project showed that some of the families could be helped by case work, if goals were not too high. "They could be helped more rapidly if there were more ancillary services, such as day nurseries, teaching homemaker, family life education programs, and, above all, opportunities for learning skills and gaining employment. Another finding has been that most families, despite their past mistakes, do not see unemployment, dependency on welfare, and residence in public housing as a way of life." (p. 456)

The Youth Development Center was responsible for the research, while the social worker, known as the "family consultant," was responsible to the Housing Authority.

For a more dramatic report on day to day work in this project, written after one year of operation, see: Weinandy, Janet, Movement and Treatment of Multiple Problem Families, unpublished paper given at N.Y. State Welfare Conference, Binghamton, N.Y., May 8, 1962, available from N.Y. State Conference of Social Welfare, Albany, N.Y.

This report includes a description of the change in the characteristics of public housing tenants which occurred after management was required in 1949 to enforce evictions for excessive income. The result was a concentration of multi-problem families.

Additional reports on this project:

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1) "Techniques of Service" first reprinted from Families Under Stress, Riessman, Frank, Jerome Cohen, and Arthur Pearl, eds., Mental Health of the Poor. Free Press of Glencoe, 1964.

2) For a complete report on the project, Weinandy, Janet E., Working With the Poor, The Report of a Three-Year Family Consultation Service in Public Housing. Available at Youth Development Center, 932 South Crouse Avenue, Syracuse, New York. See also McKibbin in section III-B-5, p. 70.

12. "TROUP County (Georgia) Homemaker Project Progress Report," Georgia State Department of Family and Children's Services, 1966, and Manual, 1964. Unpublished mimeographed.

Available: State Department of Family and Children's Services, State Office Building, Room 423, Atlanta, Georgia 30334.

"The Troup County Homemaker Project proposed to fill the gap in certain areas of the Department's service program by demonstrating that homemaker service could be a vital adjunct to casework and to the Department's overall mission. These recognized gaps in services determined the project's goals of improving clients' housekeeping practices, housing, nutrition, mental and physical hygiene, and in keeping families intact when they were beset by temporary social crises." (Progress Report p. 1)

The project was financed by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare for 3 years through Section 1115 of the Social Security Act, and continued at local expense.

Most of the reported data describe the families receiving service. Success was noted on over 90% of the cases but criteria were not specified.

Some of the work could be classified as routine social work, and some as substitute homemaking, but some was the teaching of homemaking.

The homemakers were recruited by the employment office and the Welfare Department. In the original group, 12 women were trained and paid by the agency on an hourly basis.

Training was conducted by a teacher from the Division of Vocational Education, and subsequent supervision by the casework staff of the agency. Training covered traditional home economics subjects.

Families served were receiving ADC, OAA, and AB, and some were not dependent but were recently home from the hospital. They were chosen by casework staff of the public agency and other agencies.

The 1964 manual indicates that the findings of the project should include determination of the number of homemakers needed in relation to number of public assistance cases and total population; training, skills, and capacities needed by homemakers, and appropriate salary scale. Various tests of effectiveness were planned in the original manual, but are not mentioned in the 1966 report.

D. Consumer Education

1. EBLING, Sally D. and Luvu S. Shirley. "A Public Housing Model Apartment Captures Homemakers' Interest," Journal of Home Economics, 59:1 (Jan. 1967), pp. 51-52.

A committee of 6 untrained residents of the Garden Valley Public Housing Project, Cleveland, Ohio, successfully furnished and decorated a model apartment, shopping for bargains, sewing, etc. Joint sponsors of the project were the Cleveland Metropolitan Housing Authority (CMHA) which provided the space, and the Cooperative Extension Staff which provided professional advice, but neither agency added any professional staff specially for this project. The agency purpose was to involve local leaders in homemaking education, especially consumer education, and in community organizations.

A management assistant of the CMHA considered the time spent excessive (22 weeks). If repeated, she thought, such a project should have a paid "aide" with some training, since the committee members had no experience in committee work, and little in careful shopping.

The apartment was a great success as a meeting place after completion, and was used by many other residents, in addition to the committee.

2. ERICKSON, Ann Charlotte. "An Exploratory Analysis of Consumer Rights Cases of Low-Income Residents, Washington, D.C.," Unpublished Master's thesis, College of Home Economics, Cornell University, 1967.

Study of records of 190 consumer-rights cases handled by the 4 Neighborhood Legal Service Projects in Washington, D.C., showed that buyers and sellers were almost equally at fault.

Problems with both services and consumer goods were reported; more than half of the cases concerned purchases made on credit, and most were settled out of court.

The study supports the need for strengthening consumer education programs for the poor, including consumer rights and responsibilities. Consumers need to inspect goods before purchase and to understand payment contracts before signing them. Credit is used widely. Wise use should be taught. The system of credit payments should be facilitated through institutional changes.

3. HINES, Louise Kerr and Edna DeCoursey Johnson. Consumer Protection Program: Education↔Protection, The Story of How Baltimore is Trying to Meet a Need, March 1968. 12 pages.

Available: Family Services Program - Baltimore Urban League, 2406 Pennsylvania Avenue, Baltimore, Maryland 21217.

The Baltimore Consumer Protection Program grew out of earlier work of the Baltimore Urban League in family budgeting and three well attended consumer conferences, financed by Consumers' Union of Mt. Vernon, New York. Still sponsored by the Urban League, it is part of the city's Community Action Program and serves several thousand persons yearly.

The program includes both education and protection, hopefully preventive but more often remedial. Budgeting, wise purchasing, credit, and insurance are major topics in the educational program. The protection service includes advice on avoiding frauds, help in getting credit problems straightened out, steering people to legal help, and encouraging such action as forming buying clubs and credit unions.

The work includes programs for groups, advice to individuals who come to the office or are referred by others, and consumer conferences sponsored jointly with more prosperous civic organizations.

In its third year, spring 1968, the staff consisted of the project director, 10 field assistants, a secretary-stenographer, and a clerk-typist. Most of the staff were area residents. The field assistants had had an intensive 2-months training program covering many aspects of consumer problems and resources and including lectures, discussions, field trips, and reading.

An advisory committee participates actively. Staff members have a continuous in-service training program, attend conferences, and bring back what they learn, since there is no professional in home economics, social service, or economics on the staff.

This program has been evaluated by an independent professional firm, but the report is not available to the public. The study concluded that the service was needed and wanted by residents, the personnel had won the confidence of the residents, the staff knew its job and how to apply its knowledge, and the program had served to build morale as well as leading to economic benefits.

4. MARBURGER, Carl. "Working Toward More Effective Education, A Report on the Detroit Great Cities Project--After One Year," Programs for the Educationally Disadvantaged, Washington, D.C., U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. pp. 70-79.

Available: U.S. Department of HEW, Office of Education, OE-35044, Bulletin 1963, No. 17. 50 cents.

The first year of a massive program for children included some education for adults, taught by extension staff.

Most of the work was done with a nominal increase in professional staff. College students helped with after-school and evening classes for adults and families, including urban 4-H. Twenty Michigan State University Extension Service food and marketing classes were conducted in the project schools.

The major purpose of the program was to improve the schooling offered children in disadvantaged areas. In addition to many special programs in 7 schools, there was emphasis on cultivating parent-school relations and concentrated use of available public and private agency resources.

This is one of the few public-school project reports that include a lot of work with parents and adult classes in budgeting, marketing, and sewing.

5. MENDENHALL, Paul. "The Consumer Counseling Program of AFL-CIO Community Service Activities," AFL-CIO-CSA Liaison Staff, United Community Funds and Councils of America, Inc., Working With Low-Income Families. Proceedings of the AHEA Workshop, Chicago, March 15-19, 1965. Washington, D.C. 20009: American Home Economics Association, 1600 Twentieth St. N.W., 1965. pp. 162-168.

In many cities, AFL-CIO Community Service Staff are attached to the United Fund Office and run training programs for counselors who are in a position to make referrals to agencies. They have run consumer-education courses in 20 cities; each involved extension home economists and teachers of home economics as resource people.

A typical consumer counseling program includes:

(1) Consumer Information Courses - 8 weekly sessions.
(2) Consumer Conference or Institute - concentrating on one topic for one or two days.
(3) Consumer Clinics - for specific advice.

In 14 cities AFL-CIO staff planned consumer education programs for low-income people--mostly through neighborhood houses, housing developments, and anti-poverty committees.

Getting those needing advice to attend or to follow advice is still a major problem.

6. OPPENHEIM, Irene. "Teaching Adult Women from Puerto Rican Families in N.Y.C. How to Use Their Financial Resources More Effectively," Journal of Home Economics, 57:10 (Dec. 1965), p. 803.

Programs focusing on selection of food and clothing, the choice of stores and alternate methods of payment were prepared for presentation by two different audio-visual methods and used with groups of Puerto Rican women living in the Chelsea section of Manhattan. A third group serving as a control was shown film strips. The greatest net change between pretest and posttest occurred among the women with the least prior education and the shortest residence in New York City, while differences between groups taught by different methods were slight. The group taught by a local Puerto Rican group leader scored higher than those led by English-speaking graduate students.

Providing the motivation and reassurance necessary to get the participation of the 75 Puerto Rican women was a major part of the project. Though touched on only briefly in the published report, demonstration that participation could be obtained was considered important.

The project was supported by Small Contract Grant #S-033 from the U.S. Office of Education. A mimeographed report, not generally available, describes the methods of obtaining participation, as well as the teaching materials and questionnaires.

7. RIESSMAN, Frank. "Self-Help Among the Poor: New Styles of Social Action: Can Saul Alinsky's Community Projects Become a Nation-Wide Model?" Transaction, 2:6 (September/October 1965), pp. 32-37.

Saul Alinsky's Chicago Woodlawn organization tried to stop the fraud practiced by some local merchants who were exploiting Negro slum residents. This effort primarily, though not exclusively, was an action program.

Most of the article is commentary on different forms social action can take and an analysis of Alinsky's methods.

8. STRONG, Lydia. Consumer Education for Low-Income Families - A Limited Survey of Programs and Resources. Mimeographed. July 1964. 35 pages.

Available: Consumer Union of U.S., Inc., 256 Washington Street, Mt. Vernon, New York 10550. 25 cents.

Though called "limited," this is, in fact, a very inclusive synopsis of consumer education efforts for poor people around the country, primarily in big cities. Programs discussed are sponsored by official health, welfare, housing, and education agencies and private groups like credit unions and unions.

Approaches range from classes and clinics to personal counseling and buying services.

The section on "What is Needed?" discusses research, more consumer education, leadership training, legal aid, consumer education materials (more effective than those now available), and a clearinghouse for exchange of news and information.

The appendix lists resources for consumer education, including organizations and agencies (public and private), schools, colleges and universities with special programs, social agencies, health agencies, other government sources, labor unions, professional and business sources, and other sources, with notes on the types of material and other help available.

9. WRIGHT, Carlton E Summer Participation in the Program of the New York City Council on Consumer Affairs. Mimeographed. 9 pages plus appendix.

Professor Wright directed a survey of retail food prices by neighborhood in New York City in the summer of 1967. The report was submitted to and distributed by Dr. Timothy W. Costello, Deputy Mayor, City Administrator, and chairman of Mayor Lindsay's Council on Consumer Affairs, 250 Broadway, New York City 10007.

The complete report is printed at the end of testimony given by Dr. Costello at a federal hearing:

"Consumer Problems of the Poor: Supermarket Operation in Low-Income Areas and the Federal Response," Hearings before a Subcommittee of the Committee on Government Operations, House of Representatives, Ninetieth Congress, Second Session. October 12, November 24 and 25, 1967.

Washington, D.C. U.S. Government Printing Office, 1968.

10. "CONSUMER Action--A Backward and Forward Glance," Consumer Action Program Staff of the United Planning Organization of the National Capitol Area, unpublished report, June 18, 1968. 8 pages.

Available: James Williams, Coordinator, Credit Union/Consumer Action, United Planning Organization, 1100 Vermont Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20005.

In 1965, Consumer Action components were added to Neighborhood Development Programs of the Washington, D.C. anti-poverty agency, the United Planning Organization. The early emphasis on education shifted to action and back to education as the staff found people needed to know what the problems were and how to attack them.

At first the staff in each neighborhood acted independently but a coordinator in the central office brought them together, with the result that good ideas were shared and the program strengthened. Examples of successful neighborhood action are given in the report.

On a city-wide basis, a consumer council has been organized. The purpose of the council is to protect the consumer in the market place through education, information, legislation, and change of structures which are unfair to consumers. The council conducted a staff training course with weekly sessions in 1967-68 (course outline is available). This course helped prepare for the second phase of the training program which was to be carried on in the neighborhoods.

The council has also testified before committees of Congress and the city council. An example in 1968 was testimony opposing an increase in interest rates pawnbrokers would be allowed to charge in the District.

In some neighborhoods, Consumer Action is helping to establish co-ops, both to give low-income consumers an alternative place to shop, and to stimulate improvement in existing businesses forced to compete with co-ops.

One goal is to change the system so low-income people can get credit at regular market rates instead of high-risk ghetto rates, and another is to get consumer education taught in the public schools in such a way that the next generation cannot be exploited.

Note: Copies of testimony given before various committees, council by-laws, and training-course outlines can be obtained from the coordinator.

11. CONSUMER Education Among Low Income Households. University of Dayton. A Selected Bibliography - Workshop 1967 - Improving Consumer Education . . . Among the Poor. Mimeographed. 34 pages.

Available: Single copies free from Consumer Education Study, University of Dayton.

This bibliography was prepared in the course of preparations for a two-year program at the University of Dayton, "Consumer Education for the Disadvantaged; Development of procedures to improve the implementation of consumer education of low-income consumers."

Chapter headings include: "Buying and Shopping Behavior; Consumer Protection; Credit Problems and Credit Unions; Education; Food and Food Stamps; Home Economics; Information Sources; Low-Income Household Characteristics; Money Management; Welfare and Poverty Programs."

References in each section are grouped according to type: public documents, books, articles and periodicals, reports, unpublished material, and films and filmstrips. Most references are dated 1963 or later. Entries are not annotated or evaluated.

E. Parent Education: Pre-School

1. BOUCHARD, Ruth A. and Bernard Mackler. A Prekindergarten Program for Four-Year-Olds: With a Review of the Literature on Preschool Education, New York: Center for Urban Education, 33 West 42 Street, 1967. 50 pages.

Two members of the Center for Urban Education staff studied in detail a single prekindergarten program in a public school in Harlem. The teacher, the curriculum, the children, and the testing program are described. The teacher's work with children was greatly admired. Her main liability was thought to be a great desire to be accepted and liked, which limited the professional help she could give parents.

Sections on "The Teacher and the Parents" (pp. 22-24) and "The Parents and the School" (pp. 24-25) describe what actually happened and what a preschool teacher could (and should) do to help parents become better parents.

In general, the observers felt the teacher did not make as good use as she should of opportunities to help parents understand the children and the school programs. Contacts in school and in home visits lacked a clear purpose and became more like social contacts in which serious discussion of school or child was avoided.

Similarly, little use was made of the few group meetings of parents which were arranged. There was a lack of thinking and planning in the area of school-parent relations.

Studies of social, emotional, and intellectual growth of children in preschool programs are reviewed briefly. There is more evidence of social than of intellectual growth. The permanency of changes attributed to nursery school experience is unsettled. Bibliography included.

2. BRITTAIN, Clay V. "Some Early Findings of Research on Preschool Programs for Culturally Deprived Children," Children, 13:4 (July-August 1966), pp. 130-134.

A review of research on the effectiveness of preschool programs, based on test results, shows that most but not all result in greater immediate gains in experimental groups than in controls. Research findings differ widely on the extent to which early gains are maintained.

Programs differ greatly, so differing results should not be surprising. Some of the differences are in:

1) Underlying assumptions about the deficiencies of the culturally deprived child,

2) Ages of children at entrance, program duration, and time spent in program,

3) Staff characteristics,

4) Nature and amount of parent involvement,

5) Emphasis on school readiness only as compared with broader definition of child development.

"Minimal level of parental involvement is no doubt essential for the success of any program, but there are at least three types of interprogram variation in parental role. Programs differ in (1) the degree of parental commitment prerequisite to the child's enrollment in the program, (2) the level of parental involvement in the educational processes of the program, and (3) the means of enlisting and encouraging parental involvement. It might be valuable to look at these in terms of different effects on the parents as well as on the children. But more than this, such program differences probably make a difference in the types of children served and in attrition rates, both of which are highly important in interpreting different results." (p. 134)

Includes list of reports of research on the effects of recent preschool programs.

3. CALDWELL, Bettye M. and Julius B. Richmond. "Professional Day Care for the Very Young Child - A Preliminary Report," Journal of Marriage and the Family, Special Issue: "American Poverty in the Mid-Sixties," 26:4 (November 1964), pp. 481-494.

"This paper describes a recently initiated program (at the Department of Pediatrics of the Upstate Medical Center, State University of New York, Syracuse) which has as its aim the development of a day care program for children 3 years of age and under to foster their subsequent educability. . . . An attempt will be made to prepare an environment which will foster healthy social and emotional development as well as provide stimulation for cognitive growth during a developmental period that is critical. . . ." (p. 481)

The center will be structured as a research facility primarily, though service and teaching will be included in the program.

4. KITTRELL, Flemmie P. and Jean C. Fuschillo. "Enriching the Preschool Experience of Children from Age 3, Part I, The Program and Part II, The Evaluation," Children, 15:4 (July-August 1968), pp. 135-143.

This is a report on a 2-year (1964-66) experimental nursery school program for preschool children from a low-income neighborhood near Howard University in Washington, D.C.

Dr. Kittrell describes the objectives, the curriculum, the parents' activities, and the staffing.

Dr. Fuschillo describes the selection of the children for experimental and control groups, the measurement of the children's development, the ratings of parents on SES scales which differentiate among high-low, middle-low, and low-low groups, the test results, and the patterns of gain in I.Q.

The program was staffed entirely by Howard University personnel and students; the evaluation was made by the U.S. Children's Bureau. Further evaluation of the children's programs (in the public schools) will be carried on for several years by the Social Research Group at George Washington University, with support from the Children's Bureau.

5. LAMBERT, Carroll and Don Carter. "Impact on Family Life of Project Head Start," Journal of Home Economics, 59:1 (January 1967), pp. 28-30.

Head Start projects in the Great Plains and Mountain States Region have had several kinds of impact on families, in addition to their effect on children:

1. Employment of parents and teenagers,
2. Home visits have had good influence on housekeeping, health, nutrition,
3. Educational opportunities for parents--in homes and in groups--sewing, foods,
4. "Participation" experience with parents together,
5. Impact on eating habits of child and family,
6. Utilization of the resources of community for benefit of child and family.

6. MILLER, James O. "Intervention Research with Young Disadvantaged Children and Their Parents," Research, Change, and Social Responsibility: An Illustrative Model from Early Education. DARCEE Papers and Reports, 2:3 (1967), pp. 4-8.

Available: Mrs. Carol Mode, 7526, Box 151, Demonstration and Research Center for Early Education, George Peabody College, Nashville, Tennessee 37203.

"In our present endeavors with young disadvantaged children and their parents, we are attempting a systematic assessment of the agents of change which enhance vertical diffusion of cognitive stimulation within a family." (p. 4)

An earlier controlled experiment led to a hypothesis that the project's home-visiting teacher, by maintaining contact with mothers of children in the experimental group, had made the mothers more effective change agents. Younger children in these families showed significant gains compared with those in the control-group families.

The present research focuses on comparisons of different methods of intervening with mothers from disadvantaged environments "to stimulate the cognitive development and competency of their young children."

Four groups are being compared, with varying degrees of parental participation. The curriculum is described. Results so far are encouraging with evidence of growth in both children and parents.

This report illustrates the way one research project in a center has stimulated another and the simultaneous conduct of training for professionals and of research and demonstration.

7. SAMENFINK, J. Anthony, Julie W. Lepeschkin, and Nancy Hall. "Parent-Child Education for Low-Income Families," Journal of Home Economics, 59:1 (January 1967), pp. 31-36.

The staff in the area of family living and human development in the Department of Home Economics at the University of Vermont conducted a 2-year demonstration project with 8 objectives, all in the field of parent education. Staff served as group leaders, with some undergraduate participation.

The program consisted of regular group meetings of families who were invited to participate--5 families the first year and 6 more the second year, from blue collar and other occupations.

Conclusion: "Informal interaction between professionals and families can stimulate change in parental management and point of view." (p. 36)

8. SMITH, Doris S., Flora L. Thong, and Garret H. Yanagi. "Home Economist-Homemaker Aide Team Expands Environmental Enrichment Program," Journal of Home Economics, 57:9 (November 1965), pp. 695-700.

"A unique attempt to improve homemaking and child-care practices of low-income families in Hawaii is being undertaken by a home economist and homemaker aides as part of a special project" (p. 695), financed by the Children's Bureau of U.S. Department of HEW and administered by the Mental Retardation Division, Hawaii State Department of Health.

The home economist and aides were added during the third year of the project (1964) to assist in all aspects of homemaking and family living. The major purpose of the project was to improve the chances of success in school for preschool children from deprived backgrounds. The project included direct work with children in a Child Training Center and work with parents in their own homes and in groups.

Mothers and staff felt help was needed most in food and nutrition, management, home care and first aid, sewing, and child guidance and development.

Two primary methods were: 1) The use of extension club lay leaders (aides) for work in the homes side-by-side with the parents under the home economists' guidance, and 2) a weekly mothers' meeting conducted by the home economist.

The home economist met weekly with the aides, refreshing their extension training, and bringing them specialists from other fields. The aides "have provided encouragement and 'know-how' to the mothers in such diverse activities as scrubbing floors, operating a washing machine, combing hair, making cookies with the children, repairing upholstery, learning to say 'no' to high-pressure salesmen, mending garments, preparing simple family meals, using non-fat dry milk in a variety of ways, taking a child's temperature, using a sewing machine, and stressing school attendance. With this concrete type of support, it has been possible for the mothers to gain more understanding, skill, and inner motivation in one or more aspects of family living." (p. 697)

The aides made informal reports after each weekly visit to a family and reviewed the reports to prepare an annual report. In addition, a check list or rating scale was developed by the home economist, covering "Physical Facilities" and "Homemaking Practices." The scale is based on visual observation by the rater, without asking questions. The scale is included in the reprint. Preliminary evaluation indicated that only 2 of the 13 families contacted were unable to profit from the project.

9. "DAY Care in New Haven." Community Progress Inc., New Haven. Mimeographed. 1966. 19 pages Not available.

   Describes purposes, organization, and staffing program of 3 day care centers in inner city of New Haven. Emphasis is on the neighborhood's part in organizing, staffing, and general success. Description of program and staff is very detailed.

10. An INTERIM Report on the EXPERIMENTAL NURSERY SCHOOL PROGRAM, Philadelphia Council for Community Advancement, 1966. 40 pages.

    Available: Single copies from PCCA, 603 Land Title Building,
    Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19110.

    The Experimental Nursery School sponsored jointly by the Philadelphia Board of Education and Philadelphia Council for Community Advancement began in 4 schools in Philadelphia in 1963 as a 3-year demonstration project, underwritten largely by PCCA which continues to pay for research. The Experimental Nursery School has provided an opportunity to try out new methods that can be incorporated in Head Start (called "Get Set" in Philadelphia) programs.

11. "PROJECT Head Start," Newsletter, ed. Willard W. Hartup, Division on Developmental Psychology, American Psychological Association, Spring 1968. pp. 8-10.

    Available: Office of Education and Research, Project Head Start,
    1111 18th Street N.W., Washington, D.C. 20206 (complete report).

This is a summary of a review of 2 years of evaluation research recently prepared by John W. McDavid, Director of the Division of Research and Evaluation, Project Head Start.

Data are mostly from the first year of operation when programs were hastily planned.

Findings on cognitive and emotional and social growth among Head Start children are reviewed, as are characteristics of children and families served.

One aspect needing further evaluation is the relation between parental involvement and durability of the child's Head Start advantage.

There is insufficient evidence to say "how much lasting effect Head Start has had on the families of the children it has served" (p. 10), or on the neighborhoods and communities where it has operated.

A report on 1966-67 research results was scheduled to appear later in 1968.

12. RECRUITING Low-Income Families for Family Life Education Programs. Four Reports Presented at the 1964 Annual Forum of National Conference on Social Welfare. CSAA #729. New York: Child Study Association of America, 9 East 89th Street. 1965. 27 pages.

In the terminology of the Child Study Association, Family Life Education and Parent Education mean a focus on child rearing, though they do not exclude home management. The Child Study Association's report on experience in organizing parent groups among low-income families is more optimistic than the Children's Bureau survey leads one to expect.

Recommendations are based on experience, sometimes extending over a period of several years, but not on "research" of a formal academic type.

F. Parent Education: School Age

1. BORSTELMANN, L.J. "Missionaries or Educators? Parent Education with Poverty Families." Unpublished report given at conference sponsored by the Interdepartmental Committee on Children and Youth, Washington, D.C. December 1964. 29 pages.

Available: (Scheduled for publication) Community Mental Health Journal, April 1969. Unpublished report available from: Dr. L.J. Borstelmann, Child Guidance Clinic, Trent Street, Durham, North Carolina 27707.

The Duke University staff in cooperation with the public schools and public health department in Durham, N.C., conducted parent education classes for mothers of first grade pupils in 3 middle- and lower-class schools, focusing on the behavior parents expected of children with respect to aggression, independence, and responsibility.

Discussion of the project revolves around 4 issues seen as central to the design of any adequate parent-education program: "(1) specification of the goals to be accomplished--the conception of parental values, attitudes, beliefs, expectations or behaviors held as 'desirable': (2) the message to be conveyed to the parent--what change is considered to be important in light of the conceptions held; (3) the most appropriate or efficient educational method or methods to effect the change desired; and (4) some definitive evaluation of any change related to parent participation in the program." (p. 1)

In addition, this article reviews past assumptions and goals in the parent-education field and touches on earlier research on learning.

In earlier parent-education efforts by the same group the explicit goals of the staff were:

1. To increase the mother's knowledge about child development, and
2. To increase her self-awareness in the parental role.

Data from intensive child-rearing interviews with Negro working class mothers led to interest in maternal expectations about the maturity level of the child's behavior and the experimental program reported here.

The "message" to be conveyed was to persuade each mother to examine her own expectations in light of the realities of her own child, rather than of an absolute standard. Major methods used in the past have been the mass media, group meetings, and individual counseling. A plan to compare the effectiveness of individual counseling and group discussion was changed because too few mothers participated in counseling. Instead, comparisons were made on the basis of number of group sessions attended.

In the past, students of parent behavior have used:

1. Mothers as reporters of their own behavior,
2. Trained observers in the home,
3. Questionnaire assessment of parental attitudes.

Borstelmann believes that "a mother will behave toward her child in terms of certain internalized or external standards for child training. . ." and that "the standards are not only specific to the mother but to her particular child." (p. 16)

The questionnaire he used at first provided the following data: ". . . the maturity level of maternal expectations, the maturity level of child behavior as reported by the mother, and a maturity discrepancy score in terms of the percentage of total items wherein the child is not conforming to the mature standards of the mother." (p. 17)

The questionnaire was given to all mothers of first-grade children before school started and at the end of the parent-education program in midyear. Contrary to Borstelmann's expectations, the mothers whose expectations decreased to something more like the child's behavior were those who came most rarely to the classes.

Among those who did come, change was not related to the initial level of expectations.

The general expectations questionnaire was subsequently revised to focus on behavior in the areas of independence, responsibility, and aggressive control for use in a later program with both white and Negro mothers from middle- and lower-class families.

In the initial interviews, aggression was the area of greatest concern, and was found to be the most amenable to change by participation in the education program. It was also an attitude on which white and Negro mothers differed and diverged even more after the program.

Family life educators must take an interest in the learning process and appropriate conditions for learning. Problems in working with parents are more motivational than instructional.

The report includes discussion of problems in establishing effective communication. For example, in the first study done by Borstelmann's group many questionnaire items (from earlier work by Sears [1957]) were too introspective and incomprehensible to the mothers interviewed, and were changed or dropped.

The later expectations questionnaire reflects the simplicity of language found to be essential. In addition, interviewers had to be alert to the set toward socially desirable responses.

This is a candid report on the difficulties encountered and hopes unfulfilled in attempting action research with low-income parents.

2. LIDDLE, Gordon P., Robert E. Rockwell, and Evelyn Sacadat. Education Improvement for the Disadvantaged in an Elementary Setting. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, Publisher, 1967. 116 pages.

Liddle's work is remarkable for its emphasis on parent education and involvement of parents in improving their children's school achievement and evaluation of action by research methods.

In 4 disadvantaged elementary schools in Quincy, Illinois, this project was begun in 1960. The control group numbered all 227 children who attended kindergarten in 1960-1961 in the 4 schools; the experimental group consisted of 229 children who began kindergarten the following year. Various tests, including the Metropolitan Reading Readiness Test, the Primary Mental Abilities Test, the Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC), and the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, were given before and after the 4-year study period.

The project staff included professionals, semiprofessionals, and volunteer workers. Besides the approximately 2½ professionals and a secretary, an important group called "family workers," consisting of a social worker and several former teachers, comprised the professional and semiprofessional part of the staff. The family workers spent up to 40% of their time working with the parents of the disadvantaged children. Adult volunteers helped in fields in which they were talented, sometimes befriended specific families, and were available for helping in the enrichment activities. Girl Scouts volunteered their services in a library project and day camp.

College-student volunteers from nearby Culver-Stockton College gave many hours of their time helping the teachers with routine tasks, tutoring children individually and in small groups, and helping in miscellaneous activities.

Enrichment activities were extensive: frequent field trips with curriculum built around them, puppetry as a way of improving oral communication, library trips, magazines for pictures and classification exercises, films, a small animal zoo, science and art projects, and many others. Extracurricular activities included concerts, a summer day camp, a garden which extended into the summer and ended with the children's taking home the fruits of their hard work, and many others.

At the same time the children were being directly involved in enrichment activities, the parents were participating in various informal meetings both at school and in their homes, individually with family workers, and in groups. Newsletters were sent home monthly to the parents to report on field trips the children had taken including the names of parents who had helped. "Parental involvement was a major objective because the use of whatever intellectual potential exists is determined by the child's environment, and the most potent part of that environment is his family." (p. 38) To this end, tactful family workers attempted to involve the parents in school activities and in communication between the school and the parents. Since parents of "disadvantaged" children often feel alienated by the school, it took many kinds of efforts and much patience to reach the parents. For example, the staff learned, among other things, to make the group meetings as casual as possible with informal conversations rather than lectures, to involve parents in the planning of the meetings, to provide free babysitting, and gather feed-back on what the parents thought of each meeting.

The research showed measurable improvements, such as a rise of 4 I.Q. points in the experimental group. Although the experimental group scored slightly lower on the initial tests than the control group, by the end of the project, they had caught up and had somewhat better self-images than the control groups. It should be stressed that the children were still disadvantaged, but less so than initially. The effects on the parents, although not measurable by tests, were considered significant, and relevant to the academic performance of siblings, as well as to the experimental children.

The long-range effect on the curriculum of the school system was negligible as the enrichment introduced by the project staff was not incorporated in the planning of the central-school administration. Initiative and direction for the project came from the staff of the University of Chicago.

3. NIEMEYER, John. "Some Guidelines to Desirable Elementary School Reorganization," Programs for the Educationally Disadvantaged, A Report of a Conference on Teaching Children and Youth who are Educationally Disadvantaged, May 21-23, 1962. O.E. 35044, Bulletin 1963, No. 17, pp. 80-85. Washington, D.C. 20402: U.S. Government Printing Office. 50 cents.

At the Bank Street School great attention was given to parent-teacher communication. There was systematic training, etc. of teachers in one project, and active work with the Parents Association in another to help the association leaders get more parents to participate. (1962-63)

4. SHEPARD, Samuel, Jr. "A Program to Raise the Standard of School Achievement," Programs for the Educationally Disadvantaged, A Report of a Conference on Teaching Children and Youth who are Educationally Disadvantaged, May 21-23, 1962. O.E. 35044, Bulletin 1963, No. 17, pp. 86-90. Washington, D.C. 20402: U.S. Government Printing Office. 50 cents.

This is a resume of the first year's efforts at the Bannecker School in St. Louis to improve children's achievement. There is great emphasis on persuading parents to pledge cooperation in getting children to school, in seeing that they do their homework, etc.

5. EXTENDED School Services Through the All-Day Neighborhood Schools, Board of Education of the City of New York. Curriculum Bulletin: 1965-66 Series: 19 (1966), 128 pages.

Available: Publication Sales Office, Board of Education, 110 Livingston Street, Brooklyn, New York 11201. 50 cents.

Started by volunteers in one school in Chelsea in 1936, the All-Day Neighborhood Schools program in 1965 was an offical part of the public-school program in 14 elementary schools in N.Y.C. Staff are employed from 10:00 a.m. to 5:00 p.m. and work closely with school staff so that the after-school club program supplements and individualizes the experience during the regular school day. The original motivation was to provide after-school care for otherwise unsupervised children. Parents have served in many capacities and some have been drawn into close working relationships with school personnel.

For parent participation, see pages 118-120. Incidental to the program for children is development of parents' ability to handle problems and to manage their share of the program, plus some parent education in child-handling.

Systematic evaluation from 1943 to 1945 showed better pupil-teacher relationships of several types in schools having the All-Day Neighborhood School program, than in matched groups elsewhere in the system, and at least equal achievement. On this basis the Board of Education assumed responsibility for the program.

G. Housing: General

1. ABRAMS, Charles. "The Negro Housing Problem: A Program for Philadelphia," City of Philadelphia, Community Renewal Program, Technical Report 18, Equal Opportunity in Housing, December 1966. Mimeographed. 117 pages.

Mr. Abrams made 25 recommendations in his report on Negro housing in Philadelphia.

Though some would require federal, state, or local policy changes, the key idea is to make more use of the existing large supply of relatively low-cost row houses as an alternative to public housing projects and present slum housing. He would encourage Negro home ownership through a series of subsidies.

A summary of the report and recommendations has been issued as a news release by the Community Renewal Program, City of Philadelphia, December 21, 1966.

See especially, "The Role of the University," pp. 101-102. Also, "Education and Training in Housing Maintenance Skills," pp. 104-05; and "The Troubled Family."

2. PERMAN, Dagmar Horna. The Girard Street Project, All Souls Church Unitarian, 1964. 62 pages.

Available: Reverend Duncan Howlette, All Souls Church Unitarian, 16th and Harvard Streets N.W., Washington, D.C. 20009. 50 cents.

This is an on-going block project supported by a nearby church, the All Souls Unitarian Church in Washington, D.C. The project included: 1) mothers' club; 2) sewing class; 3) summer playground; 4) pre-teen and teen girls' club; 5) organizing a neighborhood association; 6) helping residents make use of existing agencies; 7) helping residents try to improve housing through: a) code enforcement efforts, b) legal action, c) rent strikes, d) lending money to Better Homes Inc. to buy and rehabilitate housing on block; 8) helping organize neighborhood credit union.

When the project started, the block had recently changed from white one- and two-family occupancy to predominantly Negro multi-family use of rapidly deteriorating buildings. The staff concluded that until there was some improvement in housing, other efforts would be relatively ineffective. They therefore devoted major time and resources to housing efforts.

Each part of the project began as a result of expressed needs of the residents and relied heavily on resident participation.

3. SCHORR, Alvin L. Slums and Social Insecurity, Social Security Administration, Division of Research and Statistics, Research Report #1. F.S.3. 49:1, Washington, D.C. 20402: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1963. 168 pp. 50 cents.

"Evaluates . . . impact . . . of existing housing arrangements and urban renewal programs . . . and relates these to the ability of families to improve their circumstances and to move out of poverty." (p. 3)

4. TESONE, Silver L. Housing for the Physically Impaired, A Guide for Planning and Design, Housing Assistance Administration 0-283-288 Washington, D.C. 20402: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1968. 49 pages. 45 cents.

"Housing for the Physically Impaired is dedicated to increasing and improving the housing supply for impaired people with limited incomes. It attempts to clarify some of the problems involved in providing homes for independent living for this segment of our population and points the way to some solutions. The Guide is advisory in nature and not intended to be a set of rigid specifics to be followed word for word." (p. III)

The introduction describes some of the general rules that apply to the federally supported low-rent housing program. The first chapter presents basic concepts in low-rent housing for the physically impaired. Subsequent chapters discuss the neighborhood and site, dwelling structures, dwelling units, and community space. Bibliography is included.

5. COMMUNITY Service Programs for Public Housing, Public Housing Administration. 0-735-504 Washington, D.C.: Housing and Home Finance Agency. 1964. 10 pages.

The Public Housing Administration (PHA) at the federal and regional levels is responsible for working with local housing authorities to create and maintain wholesome living environments for low-income families.

Work with other agencies, family characteristics and problems of residents, local housing authority responsibility, use of project facilities, and housing and social service needs are discussed briefly.

The Public Housing Administration has found that the 12 major problems affecting tenants are: "poor housekeeping practices, debts and faulty money management, family discord and conflict, care and supervision of children particularly of working mothers, problems of youth, especially school drop-outs, idleness, irresponsible behavior, insufficient income, adult illiteracy, unemployment, children and youth with special problems or adjustment and behavior, or who are neglected or abused, or who are physically or mentally disabled, older persons, special needs of disabled adults, and health needs."

6. REPORT on Major Policies and Proposals. Community Renewal Program. City of Philadelphia. News release, mineographed (January 31, 1967), 7 pages.

After 4 years of study of Philadelphia renewal requirements, resources, and methodology, the city's Community Renewal Program committee made a final summary report with several basic recommendations for local, state, and federal policy changes and action in the fields of housing, jobs, and education. The news release summarizes the recommendations.

Before the final report, the CRP had published many consultants' and technical reports and a 6-volume "Inventory of Social Resources" covering every neighborhood in the city.

One of the specific recommendations within the Housing field was to establish a "'multiple service center' to provide furniture and furnishings, and a 'self-help training' for instruction on housekeeping and home maintenance." (p. 4)

H. Housing: New York City--Examples of Housing Rehabilitation Projects in New York City

1. BARD, Bernard. "New York's Superblock--114th Street, Harlem," Good Housekeeping, January 1968;
   and
   ROBERTS, Steven V. "The Two Faces of West 114th Street," The New York Times, August 22, 1966.

   Thirty-seven buildings housing nearly 2,000 people on 114th Street, N.Y.C., between Seventh and Eighth Avenues, are being rebuilt, with only the outside walls, staircases, and supporting beams of the old buildings retained.

   Tenants were being moved in stages to avoid massive relocation problems, with the first buildings done in 1965 and work to be completed in 1968.

   Sponsors: the Federal Housing Administration, the City Rent and Rehabilitation Administration, the Office of Economic Opportunity, and 2 foundations.

   Planning for human rehabilitation programs is being done by the N.Y. Urban League. Plans include day-care centers, job counseling, and other social services in basements.

   The OEO has financed remodeling the basements for service centers and has provided rent subsidies for one-third of the families to enable long-time residents to remain on the block.

   Overall cost of rehabilitation has been $13,000 per apartment, compared with an average of $20,000 per unit for newly built public housing.

   Rent rose from an average of $47 per month before rehabilitation to $85 per month. With subsidies, the average paid was $60 per month in 1966. Median weekly income was $61 per person. Twenty percent were on welfare and 45% were headed by women.

   Both writers stress that the physical rehabilitation of the buildings cannot solve the problems of unemployment for men and adolescents, alcoholism, and drug addiction, though addicts may move to another block. However, an example is given of a child whose school achievement is much greater since he has had a place to study quietly and privately, safe from rats.

   Residents of the block who are serving as block association president and resident manager of the nonprofit corporation doing the job, and other residents are quoted. They have helped with planning, and express satisfaction with the outcome, but recognize the need for jobs and for resident participation in helping themselves.

2. METCALF, George R. "Metro North Moves Mountains," Reporter, November 17, 1966.

This article traces the deterioration of East Harlem after World War II, the origin and growth of the metro North Citizens Committee, and later the Metro North Association.

Metro North is a neighborhood running from 99th Street to 103rd, on Second Avenue, N.Y.C. With the encouragement of the East Harlem Protestant Parish the committee cultivated leaders and learned how to organize to get the city to take over abandoned buildings, to relocate people who had to move, and to use city laws and channels open to them.

The three guiding principles were self-help, financial independence, and development of leadership within the community.

The association, made up of many organizations, wanted the whole neighborhood rebuilt, and needed an architect, a cooperative City Hall, and a concerned investor. Financial support was obtained from the Kate Maremont Foundation of Chicago for the Metro North Housing Society, a nonprofit corporation which eventually will own some rehabilitated and some new units, and later, from the FHA. Rent subsidies were arranged through the City Rent and Rehabilitation Administration (RRA).

The unique factor has been the work of the tenants themselves who started the work to upgrade the buildings. In addition to buildings being bought and rehabilitated by the society, another rehabilitation project was undertaken by the U.S. Gypsum Co., as an experiment with new materials and construction techniques. These buildings also will eventually belong to the society.

Little EOA money has gone into Metro North. At this writing, the leaders and advisors of the Citizens Committee feared that massive urban renewal plans would be launched without the participation of the residents.

The writer calls attention to the demonstration that a poor urban group could prepare and execute plans in cooperation with government, and to the need to let people in neighborhoods make their own decisions.

3. ROBERTS, Steven V. "A Lower East Side Story: In 48 Hours a Decaying Tenement Becomes a Modern Apartment House," New York Times, April 14, 1967.

An experiment in "instant rehabilitation" of a tenement at 633 East Fifth Street was considered a success. It was completed in 48 hours, while families went to hotels and their possessions were put in storage. Only the walls and frame work remained. Preassembled kitchen and bathroom units were lowered into place by crane, through holes cut in the roof. The cost of $11,000 per unit was lower than conventional rehabilitation.

The work was done by Conrad Engineers with a $1,000,000 grant from the federal Department of Housing and Urban Affairs. Rents will be a little higher than before rehabilitation but will be subsidized so tenants will pay no more than 25% of their incomes for rent.

Advantages of instant rehabilitation are the low cost of relocation and the possibility of saving buildings and neighborhoods.

The Conrad Company developed the technique and some of the materials used for this and 2 earlier buildings. The mayor was quoted as promising to designate 10 more buildings soon and to try to make the technique operational on a wide scale.

4. SESSER, Stanford N. "Slum Subsidizing, Brooklyn Rehabilitation Plan Gets Aid to Keep Rents Down," Wall Street Journal, January 3, 1968.

The Frederick W. Richmond Foundation employed the Tishman Realty and Construction Corp. to rehabilitate 17 4-story brownstone houses in the Park Slope section of Brooklyn. By using technical innovations to effect drastic economies, the rehabilitation cost per 2-bedroom apartment was held to $18,000. With conventional mortgages the rent would be $223 per month. With a 40-year mortgage and 3% interest under the National Housing Act, and waiver of real estate taxes, rent is actually about $125 per month. New construction would have cost $25,000 per unit, with unsubsidized rent of $271.

Rehabilitation projects sponsored by a private group can be carried out much faster than new public construction, especially because it is not necessary to clear a large site or relocate masses of people.

Tishman pictures rehabilitation of 250 buildings at a time with 2 weeks allowed for each building to avoid excessive overtime labor costs, and with tenants moving into rehabilitated buildings as they are finished, thus vacating other buildings for the next wave. Massive federal funds would be required.

In January 1968 only 4,350 apartments had been rehabilitated in the whole country under the federal program, 221 (d) 3 of the National Housing Act which was enacted in 1961. (This section provides for 40-year loans at 3% interest.)

In the Park Slope project, some of the preliminary costs were paid by OEO.

For more information write to: Park Slope North Improvement Corp., 743 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10022.

III. INTERVENTION PROGRAMS IN RELATED FIELDS

A. Social Work

1. ARNOLD, Irene L. and Lawrence Goodman. "Homemaker Services to Families with Young Retarded Children," Children, 13:4 (July-August 1966), pp. 149-152.

Two New York City agencies, The Retarded Infants Services, Inc. (RIS) and The Association for Homemaker Service, Inc. (AHS), with support from the Federal Children's Bureau, conducted a 3-year demonstration program to show the potential contribution of homemakers and other home helpers in enabling families of severely retarded young children to receive and use professional help in making satisfactory long-term plans for the children.

Thirty-five families recently referred to RIS were selected. Each had a retarded child under 5, and was thought by the intake social worker to need homemaker service. Financial circumstances varied.

Nine were referred to AHS for conventional homemaker service in which caseworker and homemaker, both on the staff of the agency, work together as a team. Twenty were treated by RIS with limited casework and assignment of a domestic worker called a "home aide." Six were untreated.

The 2 treatment methods were studied ". . . to seek further understanding of the impact on families of direct assistance in meeting the burdens of the family's daily routines, whether or not this assistance is interwoven with continuing casework treatment." (p. 150)

"Instruments created for the study included a 'family rating form' for measuring the quality of interaction within the family; and a 'decision-making form' for evaluating the character and adequacy of the parent's decision about the retarded child at the close of treatment. At the end of the period of service, all participating families were seen by a social worker in a followup interview. In this the interviewer attempted to view objectively the carry-over effect of the treatment received." (p. 150)

The families receiving treatment showed improved functioning of different types in contrast with untreated families. The findings are interpreted to mean that ". . . in families confronted with the reality of retardation, help from a homemaker or home aide, selected and supported by a casework agency, can in itself be salutory." (p. 151)

Note: The final report of this project, Association for Homemaker Service, Inc. and Retarded Infants Services, Inc., Child Welfare Research Project, The Value of Homemaker Service in the Family with the Retarded Child Under Five, November 1965, Project No. D66, mimeographed, 44 pp., gives additional detail about the research methods and instruments, the work of the homemakers and home aides, and a synopsis of each family's history.

2. GEISMAR, L.L. and Beverly Ayres. Measuring Family Functioning. St. Paul, Minnesota: Family Centered Project, Greater St. Paul Community Chest and Councils, Inc., 1960. 124 pp.

The Family Centered Project of St. Paul was a major effort to study and help families described as "multi-problem," "hard core," or "hard to reach." The project began in 1948.

Research centered on developing criteria for measuring change in families. This volume is a manual in which the development and use of a schedule for measuring family functioning is described.

Nine categories of functions are rated, each on a seven point scale, ranging from inadequate to adequate. The categories, each with subdivisions, are economic practices, social activities, family relationships and unity, relationship to caseworker, health problems and practices, household practices, child care and training, use of community resources, and individual behavior and adjustment.

The process of diagnosis was in each case expected to start with examination of the agency's basis for concern, i.e., what behavior or failure to function on the part of family constitutes such a threat to the welfare of the children that the community, through an agency, has an obligation to intervene.

Examples are given with sample score sheets and criteria for judging the level of functioning in each category.

3. GEISMAR, L.L. and Jane Krisberg. "The Family Life Improvement Project: An Experiment in Preventive Intervention," Social Casework, Part I, 47:9 (November 1966) pp. 563-570. Part II, 47:10 (December 1966), pp. 663-667.

The Family Life Improvement Project (FLIP), a 5-year study and intervention program, was begun in 1964, with a Welfare Administration Grant, by the staff of the Graduate School of Social Work at Rutgers, The State University, New Brunswick, N.J. Project address is 284 Broadway, Newark, New Jersey 07104.

A sample of 500 young urban families was chosen and divided into experimental and control groups. All were to be classified according to the St. Paul Scale of Family Functioning (Geismar Scale). The experimental group was to be offered social casework and help in use of community resources, depending on needs, while the control group was to be divided into subgroups, which would be interviewed at various intervals but not offered help, with one subgroup interviewed only at the end of the project to check for the possible effects of the interviewing.

"The design of this study is based on three concepts: that family functioning becomes more problematic as the family moves from the beginning stage to a later stage of the life cycle; that early intervention will reduce later malfunctioning and may, therefore, be viewed as preventive intervention; and that empirical analysis of the functioning of young families can provide data suggestive of a program of professional intervention." (p. 564)

Part I describes the research procedure and early findings, including support for the hypothesis that there is a direct relationship between family disorganization and stages of the family life cycle.

Using the Geismar scale of family functioning, only 2% of the young families could be considered "multiproblem," less than in other studies; 8% were considered "problematic," and 14% were "near problematic."

Other scales and data used with the FLIP sample, and correlated with family functioning were: (1) the Hollingshead 2-factor scale for social status, (2) marital status, (3) social functioning of families of origin, (4) age at marriage, (5) the PARI scale (Parental Attitude Research Instrument), and (6) attitudes of alienation from society as assessed by the Srole Anomie Scale.

Part II describes the treatment procedures by which it is hoped that social disorganization can be prevented among young families with varying degrees of adequacy of functioning. Communication between social worker and family has been most successful when the focus has been on problem solving.

With adequately functioning families the problem-oriented approach was not challenging to family or caseworker, and not necessarily "preventive," so the staff tried shifting toward an approach with more emphasis on long-range family goals and broadening horizons.

Very few families have refused to participate in the study, even though none had asked for service in advance.

Unpublished progress reports available from the project office go into much more detail about the program, the findings and the modifications in plans made along the way.

Note: For a more recent and more complete report on this project see Geismar, Ludwig L., Preventive Intervention in Social Work, Metuchen, New Jersey: The Scarecrow Press, Inc. 1968. 129 pp.

4. LAGEY, Joseph C. and Beverly Ayres. "Community Treatment Programs for Multi-Problem Families," The Multi-Problem Family, ed. Benjamin Schlesinger. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1963. pp. 55-71.

A 1962 survey of multi-problem family projects in all 260 communities of 100,000 or over in North America was concerned both with treatment methods in use and with research problems, especially how to separate out of any client movement the "Hawthorne" or "placebo effect."

Replies from 238 showed a wide range of projects, from "difficult case committees" to massive community organization efforts, with serious professional interest in better ways to ameliorate chronic dependency.

"The survey findings also show a serious deficiency in communication. Many communities are proceeding as if there had been no prior experience nor wisdom accumulated. There are projects underway where the likelihood of developing new knowledge and new methods of treatment can be seriously questioned. Research methodology is also woefully absent. The use of control groups is absent far more than it is present. Many projects are not using before-after designs. Very often little or no thought is given to evaluation of outcome." (pp. 56-57)

Communication about experimentation is needed so that duplication of projects can be planned, replication and measurement of effectiveness of treatment can be standardized, and projects can be compared.

Programs in some stage were reported in 143 communities; 76 had projects either in an advanced planning stage, in operation, or recently concluded. These 76 reported 117 different projects or programs, classified as follows:

- Case conference - 20.5%
- Intensive casework - 37.6%
- Multi-service - 17.1%
- Community development - 13.7%
- Could not be classified - 7.7%
- Other, including homemaker-housekeeper programs - 3.4%.

The remainder of the article describes programs in each group and lists the names and locations of all projects reported.

5. LEVINE, Rachel. "Treatment in the Home: An Experiment With Low-Income, Multi-Problem Families," Mental Health and the Poor, eds. Riessman, Cohen, Pearl. New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1964. pp. 329-335.

The Mental Hygiene Clinic of the Henry Street Settlement in collaboration with the New York City Board of Education and the New York City Community Mental Health Board undertook a 3-year program in which intensive family treatment was to be conducted in the homes of low-income, multi-problem families. All the families had boys with emotional disturbance so severe that they were excluded from school. Six out of 7 families responded.

The research showed high correlation between parents' and children's progress.

6. SCHLESINGER, Benjamin, ed. The Multi-Problem Family -- A Review and Annotated Bibliography. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1963. 173 pp.

This book includes a discussion of the definitions and characteristics of multi-problem families and a review of the history of diagnostic and treatment efforts by John Spencer. (pp. 3-54) (See #7, p. 67.)

It also includes a summary of a 1962 survey of urban multi-problem family projects by Joseph C. Lagey and Beverly Ayres. (pp. 55-71) (See #4, p. 65.)

There is also an annotated bibliography (pp. 76-159) and a list of relevant journals and organizations in Australia, Britain, Canada, France, Holland, and the United States. (pp. 161-168)

7. SPENCER, John C. "The Multi-Problem Family," The Multi-Problem Family, ed. Benjamin Schlesinger. Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1963. pp. 3-54.

"This report is concerned with the internal behaviour of these [multi-problem families] and their relationship with the social environment in which they live, and it aims at assessing the development and nature of our present knowledge and at clarifying the lines of future study and practice.

"The frequently used labels, 'hard core' or 'hard to reach' are in themselves indications of the multi-problem family's outstanding characteristic --its resistence to existing methods of help and treatment. The question of multi-problem family study and treatment, however, should be related to the study and treatment of disordered and disorganized family behaviour in general." (pp. 3-4)

Studies in the 1950's focused on defining and classifying multi-problem families and stimulated critical examination of social services and a variety of new projects and new approaches to treatment.

Knowledge of causation and attempts at definition are not precise, but there is general agreement on the main social characteristics of the multi-problem family. In addition to dirt and malnutrition, large size of family, high rate of mobility, isolation and alienation from kinship group and neighbors, and a pattern of spouse relationships described as "matriarchal" or "role reversal" are typical.

Individuals within multi-problem families are most frequently described as "emotionally immature," though ways of showing immaturity differ. Most prevalent is the "passive dependent personality." This type is generally incompetent and may be thought of as having a "weak ego." The other prevalent personality type is the "anti-social" personality, which is more aggressive and exploitative than the passive dependent type, with internal competence but a weak superego. Both these types lack anxiety and guilt. More needs to be known about appropriate treatment for the different personality types found in multi-problem families.

Attempts to place the multi-problem family in the class structure are affected by different ways of looking at social differences. Case studies report feelings of isolation and alienation. "Multi-problem families in certain respects identify themselves with the norms and aspirations of the lower class." (p. 25) Social workers usually see multi-problem families as ". . . resistant to middle-class standards of housekeeping, child rearing, and social morality." (p. 25)

Multi-problem families should not be thought of exclusively in terms of lower class values and attitudes. Many of them are not identified with any group. Many express middle class values but do not behave accordingly.

Three main obstacles to treatment, in addition to the main one of diagnosis, have been: (1) fragmentation and lack of coordination among the health and welfare services, (2) tendency for each service to focus on a particular symptom, generally of an individual family member, and (3) absence of continued long-term contact between client and worker beyond dealing with a crisis.

Spencer's recommendation for future work was primarily for more sophisticated family diagnosis and family-centered casework treatment, with stress on pathology and discovering and testing different methods of treatment.

8. WALLACE, David. "The Chemung County Evaluation of Case Work Service to Dependent Multiproblem Families -- Another Problem Outcome," The Social Service Review, 41:4 (December 1967), pp. 379-389. Complete report to be published in book form by Russell Sage Foundation.

A rigorously designed and controlled action-research program, comparing the effectiveness of casework by trained social workers with small case loads in a public welfare agency with routine treatment in the same agency, showed no significant difference in results.

Case in treatment and control groups were all multi-problem families known to several agencies for a considerable time.

Cases were rated before and after by independent teams on the Geismar (St. Paul) scale of family functioning and the Community Service Society's Hunt-Cogan scale of individual movement.

Note: For a more recent and more complete report on this project see: The Multi-Problem Dilemma: A Social Research Demonstration With Multi-Problem Families, ed. Gordon E. Brown. Metuchen, New Jersey: The Scarecrow Press, Inc., 1968. 189 pp.

B. Combinations of Agencies

1. BITENSKY, Reuben. "The Impact of Social Problems on Public Housing," paper presented at International Conference of the National Association of Housing and Redevelopment Officials held in Ottawa, Canada, October 3-4, 1966. 8 pp. Also in Urban Renewal and Public Housing in Canada, 3:3.

Available: Reuben Bitensky, c/o Syracuse University School of Social Work, 926 South Crouse Avenue, Syracuse, New York 13210

Both the public and tenants in public housing should be encouraged to think of housing as only part of comprehensive planning for inner-city problems. Housing staff cannot provide all the social services.

Syracuse University, in cooperation with Syracuse Housing Authority and the United Community Chest and Council of Onandaga County, has set up the Central Village Day Care Project in a housing project near the campus.

"The agency has a unified family approach and offers day care for the children of working mothers, family counseling, a family life program, and hot lunch for school children." (p. 5)

The total program includes research and educational components, training of graduate students for work in community organization and poverty programs, and development of a board of neighborhood residents.

2. BRAGER, George. "New Concepts and Patterns of Service: the Mobilization for Youth Program," Mental Health of the Poor, eds. Riessman, Cohen, and Pearl. New York: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1964. pp. 412-421.

The Mobilization for Youth program, a comprehensive demonstration and research project in delinquency prevention and control in New York City, includes educational efforts, recreation, youth job center, "community organization," and more.

3. BROWNING, J. Louis. Strengthening Community Services in Low-Income Neighborhoods - A Field Guide to Concerted Services. (HUD TS-17) Washington, D.C. 20402: U.S. Government Printing Office, June 1967. 17 pp. 20 cents.

"This guide summarizes the experience of the Joint Task Force on Health, Education and Welfare Services and Housing. It states the purpose for which the Task Force was established, the actions it took to accomplish its purpose, and what it learned in the process.

"It provides a brief description of the concept of 'Concerted Services' developed by the Task Force and describes the criteria considered essential for the effective creation and conduct of a 'Concerted Services Project'. The guide also mentions briefly the demonstration workshop organized by the Task Force; and contains a list of publications issued by the Task Force." (Foreword)

Four demonstration "concerted services" projects were sponsored: Pruitt-Igoe in St. Louis, Elm Haven in New Haven, Pittsburg in California, and Miami in Florida. A concerted services project must provide for "coordination in identifying needs for services among the individuals and families in the housing development, in planning to meet these needs, and in providing services in planned phases as the total project proceeds. It would call for development of methods to mobilize all resources for doing so -- Federal, State and local." (p. 4)

4. DERBYSHIRE, Robert L. "The Social Control Role of the Police in Changing Urban Communities," Excerpta Criminologica, 6:3 (1966), pp. 315-321.

This article examines the role of the policeman in riot-prone urban areas in terms of conflicts about his own role (persuasion and coercion) and the needs of residents for a stable, well-known person in the job.

This reference is included to illustrate the point that many professions and occupations have a role in creating the climate of a ghetto. It suggests that the various professions are least useful among people who have never been part of an integrated, cohesive community with built-in social controls and leadership.

If Derbyshire's analysis is correct, many inner-city children have opportunities to observe the police at work more frequently than they observe their own fathers. They also have a well-established picture of the role of the police before they first encounter school teachers.

5. McKIBBIN, Beatrice. "Helping Families to Assume Responsibility." Unpublished paper given at Work-Shop, Detroit, Michigan, October 15, 1963. 14 pp. Not available.

"The Community's attitude toward social services, both public and private, is of vital importance to the local Housing Authority. If the low income families who are most in need of adequate housing, rather than carefully screened desirable applicants, are to be served by public housing, then a program of services is essential. Without social, educational, recreational and health programs directed toward raising standards and effecting more adequate functioning on both an individual and family basis, our public housing projects may well become publicly subsidized slums. There are those who believe we are close to that state now." (p. 1)

This paper describes the steps leading to the demonstration-research project with multi-problem families in public housing in Syracuse (see section on programs for "chronic" poor housekeepers), and other efforts to obtain services for low-income residents of public housing.

In 1956 the Syracuse Housing Authority and the council of Social Agencies formed a Joint Committee on Problem Families; the mayor appointed a separate committee to study the same problems. Both groups found that stable families were leaving housing projects as a result of full employment and prosperity, and that replacements were coming from substandard housing being demolished for code enforcement and from urban renewal and highway construction areas. They saw no way to reverse the trend and recognized that very low income families got little benefit from existing agencies. Both groups recommended adding a social worker to the Housing Authority staff to coordinate, mobilize, and unify agency efforts on behalf of problem families. When the position was created, the group which had helped set qualifications became an advisory committee and established a climate conducive to cooperative planning.

The voluntary casework agencies were understaffed and not adapted to the more difficult "reaching-out" casework approach needed by the problem families. The settlement houses were serving low-income families but could not take many more without increased budgets.

Developing new services and expanding old ones was not easy. The Housing Authority had an opportunity, and felt an obligation, to identify some specific needs and interpret them to the community. Once services were started by the community, they were available to other low-income persons as well as to public-housing residents.

Adequate and appropriate casework services were hard to obtain, partly because of gaps in the existing services and ineffectiveness of traditional approaches, but also because of difficulties in the referral process. "It became clear that unless the referral process included an effort to help the family in assessing its problem, determining the kind of help needed to solve it, and in arriving at an understanding of what efforts the members of the family must put into solving the problem, the accepting agency was faced with unresponsive, indifferent, and even hostile clients. Knowledge of specific family situations indicated that intensive work with some of the families was needed, prior to referral, if they were to become sufficiently motivated to work purposefully with an agency." (p. 7)

The Housing Authority and the Youth Development Center at Syracuse University began a project to determine the relationship between effectiveness of service from agencies and the referral process carried out by the authority staff.

The focus of the project changed to permit the Family Consultant (an experienced social worker) to carry cases on a long-term basis when it became clear that agencies could not accept all the referrals. She carried an average of 15 cases at a time, seeing families weekly, and sometimes daily at times of crisis.

At this writing the research was not complete but the staff had learned that casework services were not enough. Family-life education and training for employment were needed, as well as a strong tenant organization.

The Advisory Committee and professionals brought together through their interest in hard-to-reach families helped to obtain the necessary United Fund commitments to provide services in new housing projects so that the Federal Housing Agency would authorize space. One of the new services is a Family Service Agency, to be administered by the Syracuse University School of Social Work.

See also: Weinandy - (III-A-11 above) and Weinandy, Janet E., Lee J. Carey, Morton O. Wagenfeld, and Charles V. Willie. Working With the Poor. Youth Development Center, 932 South Crouse Street, Syracuse, New York. $1.50.

6. RIESSMAN, Frank. "The Under-Utilization of Mental Health Services by Workers and Low-Income Groups: Causes and Cures," American Journal of Psychiatry, 121:8 (February 1965), pp. 798-801. Abstracted in PHRA, 1:5 (September-October 1966), p. 67.

"Negative attitudes and inadequate services are the chief barriers against workers and low-income groups using mental health services. Some remedies for this situation are suggested." (PHRA, p. 67.)

One of six suggestions is: "(3) Revise the 'psychodynamics, insight, reconstructive' approach to treatment. Experimental programs have shown that when revisions are made, low-income patients respond positively." (PHRA, p. 67.)

7. SIMONDS, John E. "Legal-Service Plan an 'Embarrassing Success,'" Ithaca Journal (June 26, 1967).

The demand for OEO-financed legal services for the poor increased from 95,000 cases in the last six months of 1966 to 93,000 cases in the first three months of 1967. About twenty percent of the cases are consumer problems, eight percent are housing cases, seven percent are cases involving other government agencies. (OEO lawyers have been successful in staying evictions in eighty percent of their cases.)

This article is a Gannett News Service feature based on a statement by Earl Johnson, Jr., Director of OEO's legal services, to the House Education and Labor Committee earlier in June 1967.

8. STITT, Pauline G., M.D. "Helping Medical Students Find the Strength in People," Children, 13:3 (May-June 1966), pp. 104-108.

"Home care service," as part of a medical student's training, teaches him a lot besides medicine. This article is included to suggest the kind of cultural shock persons training for other professions, as well as medicine, may experience and what they may learn from clients.

9. WOOD, Elizabeth. Review and Evaluation of Work of Joint Task Force in Health, Education and Welfare and Housing. Washington, D.C. U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development, Mimeographed 1966. 130 pp. Out of print.

This is the most inclusive single account of the work of the Joint Task Force from its beginning late in 1961 through 1966. The criteria for evaluating the "Concerted Services" projects in four cities (St. Louis, New Haven, Pittsburgh, California, and Miami, Florida) are listed and each project is compared with the criteria. In these cities various federal programs under HEW and HUD were to be concentrated in a selected area to see if the combined impact would be greater than the total of each working separately.

The idea of "concerted services" (as contrasted with fragmented services) had widespread impact in the public housing field, and was "a precursor, if not a model" for the Community Action program of OEO. The official lessons learned by the task force are listed (pp. 120-121) along with the principal obstacles encountered. In future federal projects attempting to integrate physical and social programs, "there will need to be a system of inter- and intra-departmental functions to deal with these obstacles." (p. 125)

Arrangements for "concerting" plans are required in the Demonstration Cities Act of 1966 but could also be encouraged in other places. Effective concerting of services is regarded as essential if the money spent on enormous federal programs is to bring about "measurable and visible improvement in the social and physical condition of the people in this country."

The task force defined "concerting" services not as "saturation" but as bringing together the many autonomous social agencies into a body capable of setting service priorities, making a social plan and carrying out an agreed program, and concerting the physical and social program.

10. THE HUMAN Story. Annual Report, Community Progress, Inc. New Haven. 1966. 102 pp.

Available: Community Progress, Inc. 270 Orange Street, New Haven, Connecticut.

Community Progress, Inc. (CPI) sponsors the New Haven Community-Action program which has focused on employment, vocational training, and a wide variety of neighborhood services including day care centers and "neighborhood workers."

Earlier, CPI provided the initial local coordination for the organizations participating in the Concerted Services project of the Joint Task Force on Health, Education and Welfare Services and Housing, and stimulated the construction of schools designed to be used as community centers in inner-city neighborhoods.

Part of the Concerted Services project for New Haven was casework and homemaking service in the Elm Haven Housing Development. The staff of the unified social services includes "homemaking advisers" who do the one-to-one work with families described elsewhere as teaching homemakers.

See also 1967 Annual Report.

11. NEW Programs in Health, Education and Welfare for Persons and Families of Low Income. Joint Task Force on Health, Education and Welfare Services and Housing, 1965. 0-775-256. Washington, D.C. 20402: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1965. 14 pp. 15 cents.

This booklet is a supplement to the Joint Task Force's 1964 pamphlet, Service for Families Living in Public Housing. It is intended to inform Housing Project Managers and others about seven new federally aided programs and to encourage them to help communities and individuals establish and use such programs locally.

12. SERVICES for Families Living in Public Housing. Joint Task Force on Health, Education and Welfare Services and Housing, 1964. 0-724-966. Washington, D.C. 20402: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1964. 50 pp. 30 cents.

This pamphlet was prepared and widely distributed to facilitate cooperation among local, state, and federal agencies in making appropriate services available to residents of public housing and other low-income persons. More specifically, the information was prepared for the use of local housing-authority personnel wishing to engage in cooperative planning.

Families typically occupying public housing are described, and methods of ascertaining their needs and enlisting their participation are discussed. Then follows a description of the services of local branches of relevant federal, state, and local agencies found in most communities, presented both in prose and in chart form, organized according to frequent problems found in housing-project surveys.

Note: See also a supplement published in 1965, New Programs in Health, Education and Welfare for Persons and Families of Low Income. (See No. 11 above.)

13. A STUDY of Community Facilities and Programs Serving Residents of Low-Rent Public Housing. U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development, Housing Assistance Division, 1967. 0-276-107. Washington, D.C. 20402: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1967. 30 pp. 25 cents.

"The Housing Assistance Administration believes that adequate community facilities and programs are necessary to the successful operation of low-rent public housing. These facilities and programs combined with good housing and a socially oriented management, provide project residents with means to improve their family and community living standards." (p. i)

This pamphlet reports the findings of a survey of 3,000 housing projects to determine ". . . the number and kind of community facilities and programs being operated for the benefit of low-rent public housing residents, as necessary appurtenances to decent, safe, and sanitary housing." (p. i)

Programs outside the projects in which occupants participated were included in the survey. In spite of many facilities both on- and off-site, local housing authorities report unmet needs for recreation programs, community space, social service and welfare programs, and day-care facilities and programs.

C. Community Development

1. ALINSKY, Saul D. "The War on Poverty - Political Pornography," Journal of Social Issues, 21:1 (January 1965), pp. 41-47.

This is a diatribe against giving OEO money to established agencies, big or small. The author says that federal staff should seek out genuine leaders in block meetings and in existing neighborhood organizations; also that without political power a man is poor.

Genuine representatives of the organized poor "possessed of sufficient power to threaten the status quo with disturbing alternatives . . . are necessary to . . . induce the status quo to come through with a genuine, decent, meaningful poverty program. After all, change usually comes about because of threat, because if you don't change something worse is going to happen." (p. 46)

2. BEISER, Morton. "Poverty, Social Disintegration and Personality," Journal of Social Issues, 21:1 (June 1965), pp. 56-78.

A project for community change in Digby, Nova Scotia, was led by a teacher. It was part of the Cornell-Leighton project which extended over a period of years.

To succeed, the leaders had to know the community: its level of development and realizable goals. Both the process and evidence of change are described.

3. CORBETT, Frank J. "Involving Inner-City People in New Haven's Community-Action Program," paper delivered at the National Conference of Social Workers, Chicago, June 1, 1966. Mimeographed. 5 pp.

Community Progress, Inc. of New Haven, Connecticut, starting several years before the EOA and following the advice of its manpower director, went into neighborhoods offering jobs and job training. This approach was contrary to the usual community organization practice of beginning by fact-finding and bringing together different segments of the population to participate in planning programs.

In this case, the argument was that the people had been saying for years that they wanted jobs, with no results, and it was now time to produce tangible opportunities.

Additional steps are described and tied to the need to cultivate feelings of pride, self-reliance, and status.

Mr. Corbett is Associate Director, Neighborhood Services Division, Community Progress Inc., New Haven.

4. PRIDE, Kathryn. "A Search for Spirit in the 'Slums,'" University of Denver Magazine, 2:1 (September 1964).

The Auraria Community Center, a United Fund agency on Denver's West Side, undertook a community organization project with the help of funds from NIMH. The professional staff of the Center worked with graduate students from the Denver University School of Social Work on a survey and then on a series of small individual clean-up projects.

The neighborhood was changing rapidly from "Anglo" to "Spanish" and was deteriorating. Rates were high for crime, unemployment, relief, and school drop-outs. There was hostility on the part of Anglos toward the more disadvantaged minority group and apathy toward community problems.

Students found they had to practice guidance, not leadership, to get citizens to do things for themselves. There was some satisfaction, but the process was "hard and slow." At the end of 9 months, students observed some improvement in "community spirit"; a neighborhood newspaper had been started and there were some signs of improvement in Anglo-Spanish relations.

Annual reports from the Auraria Community Center to NIMH (1964, 1965, 1966) on this project, "Intervention in the Face of Neighborhood Blight," go into great detail about meetings held, steps taken to mobilize public and private agencies to work together, and the later transition to a CAP under the Economic Opportunity Act.

The Hungerbuhler project on Improving Substandard Homemaking was part of this large project. (See II-C-6, p. 34)

5. TOBIER, Arthur. "Cooperative Communities North and South: A Response to Poverty," The Urban Review, 2:5 (April 1968), pp. 15-17.

In several parts of the country, self-help, community-controlled, cooperatively owned corporations are providing a pattern for anti-poverty efforts as an alternative to government programs and traditional corporation incentive programs. Those that succeed, through loans, technical assistance, and profitmaking, achieve self-sustaining growth.

A successful experience in Crawfordville, Georgia, started with a small silk-screen operation, with help from the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, the Citizens Crusade against poverty, the National Council of Negro Women, and the Stern Family Fund. The pattern has been to "combine all the elements of community development in one place and under one organization--from community-run businesses and credit unions to coop housing, youth programs, and child care." (p. 15) By the summer of 1968, it was expected that the original, most advanced coop would be making a profit, with a day-care center, credit union, agricultural cooperative, and youth program also in operation.

In Bedford-Stuyvesant, 2 sociologists and about 15 students in 1966 formed a Negro and white corporation called the Community Cooperative Center to run a day-care center for children under 5, and a discount gas station and drug store to support it. The day-care center met an immediate need though it ran without Health Department permits. Enrollment fluctuated between 30 and 175. The businesses had trouble building up sales because poor people do not trust merchandise without brand names. The stores also had trouble because of city rules. The center had to go into bankruptcy, was reorganized with a smaller staff and no children under 2, and eventually was closed by court order. The originators of this effort had plans to start similar operations in Boston and other urban areas.

Among professionals there is admiration for the idea of self-supporting community corporations, but also skepticism based on the difficulty of obtaining seed money and the generally high failure rate.

A group of planners from the Institute of Politics of the John F. Kennedy School of Government at Harvard and from the M.I.T. City Planning Department has been formed to develop models and to experiment with variations of the twin community corporation form of organization. The group expected to go into operation in the Boston area in the fall of 1968, and over a period of 4 or 5 years to test models applicable to different ethnic neighborhoods in cities and stagnant rural communities north and south.

6. TSANOFF, Corrine S. "Working Together for Neighborhood Improvement," Children, 2:5 (September-October 1964), pp. 179-182.

Before 1959, the Neighborhood Centers Association of Houston and Harris County (Texas) conducted a routine settlement program in Clayton Homes, an isolated public-housing project occupied by 348 Mexican families, mostly large families with many problems.

In 1959 the association initiated a program intended "(1) to see whether a whole neighborhood, with a trained staff to guide it, could become involved in a program to better itself and develop its own leadership; (2) to tell the residents of the city's special services and persuade them to use these services, not only in crisis but as part of a coordinated and continuing program." (p. 179)

The first step was staff training, and the second was dropping membership requirements. Residents did not object to surveys but rather seemed pleased at the show of interest.

The first 3 projects chosen by the staff, in an attempt to interest everyone, were a Christmas festival, a cleanup of the project grounds, and a kindergarten readiness program. Later, projects were chosen by residents and included getting rid of roaches and rats.

A campaign to get children ready and enrolled in school on the first day of kindergarten was successful. The principal and school nurse met with parents at the project, both at a reception and in small discussion groups, and repeated the visits each year.

Residents have been attending adult classes for the past 3 years, taking English, citizenship, cooking, and sewing.

By frequent rotation of leadership and choice of committees from each section of the project, many persons had an opportunity to develop leadership skills. After the adult program had been working well for some time, the same pattern was developed with teen-age residents. In addition, the young people had 2-day leadership-training retreats and several weeks of training after taking office. Starting with polio vaccine and recreation, the youth groups later developed pre-employment and work-training programs.

The Neighborhood Centers' board and staff took the initiative in working out administrative devices for coordinating services, especially new services. (There were already 32 agencies with staff in and out of the housing project for various types of emergencies.)

The staff was surprised at the leadership and ability of residents to work together, which developed during the 4 years. School, court, and housing-project personnel all report improvement in behavior.

In 1964 the centers were planning to introduce the technique developed at Clayton Homes in other neighborhoods and to use the Clayton Homes as a training center for staff.

7. A REPORT on Neighborhood Urban Extension, The Third Year, 1965. Pittsburgh: ACTION-Housing Inc., Number Two Gateway Center, 1966. 32 pp.

This is one of many ACTION-Housing publications.

The first chapter reviews the concept, practical development and operation, and problems encountered in a 5-year demonstration project financed by the Ford Foundation as part of its study of Urban Extension.

"The purpose of the five-year demonstration is to test the effectiveness of neighborhood people themselves, through democratically structured organizations, marshalling all the resources of the city, with professional guidance, to bring about the revitalizing of their neighborhoods.

"Experience in depth with the Neighborhood Urban Extension process has established a prototype for other community action programs both in Pittsburgh and in other cities of the nation, under the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964." (p. 1)

Two neighborhoods had strong citizens' councils and another was well organized but did not qualify as a high-priority poverty area.

The focus of ACTION-Housing has been on helping people improve housing by a variety of techniques, including purchase and rehabilitation. This organization was the only one in the Ford Foundation program which really became a neighborhood citizens' urban extension program with success in cultivating local leadership and awareness of relationships between staff and neighborhood residents.

ACTION-Housing is a privately financed group which has promoted redevelopment, community studies, and improvement of housing for several years, and has prepared outstanding community studies.

For an example of ACTION-Housing publications addressed to residents see: It's Your Neighborhood, 1966, 16 pages. This is a "scriptographic booklet" which uses pictures and a minimum of prose to urge residents to look at their neighborhoods, see what is needed, and join with others in urban extension to solve problems.

8. THE WAR on Poverty in Pittsburgh, a 1966 progress report to Pittsburghers from the Mayor's Committee on Human Resources, Inc. Pittsburgh, 1966. 38 pp.

A review of anti-poverty programs includes:

(1) Homemaker Services -- C.A.P., operated by the Allegheny County Board of Public Assistance, employs former public assistance workers to teach housekeeping skills and serve as substitute homemakers (10-week training). Eleven professionals and 34 subprofessionals were employed in 1966.

(2) Housing Improvement Service -- C.A.P., operated by ACTION-Housing Inc., conducts classes in home repairs and rehabilitation, employing 3 professionals and 3 subprofessionals. Architectural service is available and a trailer is used as a mobile tool-storage unit. Residents borrow the tools and use the trailer for headquarters and meetings.

Throughout the program there is emphasis on use of subprofessionals in a great variety of jobs. The program includes advanced training for subprofessionals.

IV. ADULT EDUCATION AND EDUCATION FOR EMPLOYMENT

A. Adult Education

1. KNOWLES, Malcolm S. "Adult Education," Encylopedia of Social Work, 1965, pp. 68-72.

The history of adult education is reviewed, including types of program, auspices, and support.

Before World War I, the constituency was overwhelmingly the undereducated immigrant and others with inadequate education. Later, it shifted to well-educated adults wishing further development.

In the mid-sixties, programs swung back to elimination of illiteracy, retraining of workers displaced by automation, and re-education of the elderly.

"The curriculum of adult education has traditionally been determined by the pressing social needs of the time." (p. 71)

Research on adult learning is reported in complete June issues of Review of Educational Research, 1950, 1953, and 1959. See also, summer issues of Adult Education since 1955.

"Special attention has been given in the last decade to the study of the behavior of groups and their use as instruments of learning." (p. 71) This has resulted in many new methods of teaching adults, with less reliance on lectures than in the past.

2. KNOWLES, Malcolm S. Informal Adult Education, A Guide for Administrators, Leaders and Teachers. New York: Association Press, 1950.

This book consists principally of sensible-sounding advice based on years of experience with a great variety of adult education outside of formal educational institutions. There is nothing in the index about "low income" or "home economists."

The advice is geared more to work with middle-class than with illiterate students but includes motivation, leadership, promotion, and many other administrative topics.

A section on "evaluation" suggests simple methods and reasons for evaluations, but there is nothing about systematic research.

B. Adult Literacy

1. BROOKS, Denton J., Jr. "The Role of Research in Defining Elements of Program at the Local Level -- A Case Setting," Proceedings: Fifth Biennial Workshop on Public Welfare Research and Statistics, July 20-24, 1964, ed. Hilda Siff. Washington, D.C. 20201: U.S. Department of HEW, Welfare Administration, pp. 41-45.

The Cook County Department of Public Aid research staff analyzed information about recipients during years of relatively full employment. They found most unqualified for work in industry which had changed technology.

Fifty percent of the group studied could not read better than the 5th grade level, though they had stayed in school longer than 5 years. This finding led to adult literacy classes - with 10,000 persons enrolled. Brooks believes vocational training, Manpower Training, etc. ineffective without literacy.

2. DERBYSHIRE, R.L. "The Sociology of Exclusion: Implications for Teaching Adult Illiterates," Adult Education, 17:1 (Autumn 1966), pp. 3-11.

Adult illiterates are among the "excluded" - which means there is a barrier effectively shutting them off from what is open and accessible to others.

The values of illiterates are not very different, but hope and possibility of realizing them is minimal.

Characteristics of adult illiterates are detailed. For example, some common personality traits and behavior are: 1) insecurity, resulting in boisterous acting-out behavior; 2) physical aggression; 3) reticence; 4) resignation, which appears as lethargy or lack of motivation; 5) extreme sensitivity; 6) concrete rather than abstract thinking.

After a section of advice on teaching methods there is a warning that teachers ". . . have a high potential for further alienating the excluded." (p. 11)

Surveys of Negro patients and Negro college students provided the basis for the article.

3. FIELD Test and Evaluation of Selected Basic Education Systems, Greenleigh Associates, Inc. New York: Greenleigh Associates, Inc., 355 Lexington Avenue, New York, New York 10017, 1966. 133 pages plus appendices. $5.00.

This report describes an ambitious attempt to study methods used to teach functionally illiterate adults. The research was designed to: a) evaluate 4 different systems of teaching reading to illiterate adults, prepared by 4 different publishers; and, b) compare the success of teachers at 3 different levels of preparation--certified teachers, college graduates with no teaching experience or training, and high school graduates. These comparisons are treated statistically. In addition the research included systematic observation of classes. The report includes descriptions of recruiting difficulties, arrangements with the local education and welfare departments cooperating in the project, and recommendations as to content of adult courses and changes in methods of evaluating the progress of adults. See pages 15-18 for summary of findings and recommendations.

Adults numbering 1,620 in 3 states were assigned to classes. Almost all improved in reading skill but no system or level of teacher preparation was consistently more successful than the others. Interviews indicated students felt they had benefited in other ways. Observors felt measuring instruments were inadequate.

The OEO, Welfare Administration, and Office of Education in Washington sponsored the project and cooperated in the plan. The state and local agencies carried it out. The educational program could not have been conducted without the supporting services of the county welfare departments, using OEO Title V funds.

One of the recommendations was to extend eligibility for the Title V programs to homemakers not immediately employable, for the sake of better parent-child relations, money management, and future employment.

C. Education for Employment

1. CANAN, James W. "A Second Chance for Ninety Men in Norfolk," New Perspectives on Poverty, eds. Shostak and Gomberg. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Inc., 1965. pp. 77-83.

This is a success story, a detailed account of an early attempt to train illiterate unemployed Negroes for employment under the Manpower Development Training Act of 1962 at the Norfolk division of Virginia State College.

One hundred men were recruited for vocational training; 50 of these received, in addition, basic education, and 90 completed the year-long course. Their success was to be compared later with that of 100 men given no training. Canan reported substantial success on the part of those completing the course and attributed it to the determination of the staff to overcome all crises.

Canan describes the recruiting, training, and job-finding process, with emphasis on the men's morale. Halfway through the course the college borrowed a caseworker from the Norfolk Social Service Bureau to counsel the men.

In addition, the social worker ". . . organized the trainees' wives into a club; helped them to budget for low-cost, nourishing meals and to organize their households; arranged picnics; attempted to relieve the fears of some of them that their husbands might develop a yen for the coeds at the college; and repeatedly planted the idea that they should be proud of their husbands and of themselves." (p. 81)

2. LEVITAN, Sar A. "Work Relief: Social Welfare Style." W.E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research, June 12, 1966 (original not seen), mimeographed. 18 pp. Abstracted in PHRA, 2:1 (January-February 1967), p. 115.

"Our only significant work-relief program for adults is the Work Experience Program (Title V) of the Economic Opportunity Act. It aims to make the trainee self-supporting through work experience combined with vocational and literacy training, if needed, and other supportive services, such as day-care for children, remedial health care, job placement and guidance, and work-related expenses. Most trainees are unemployed parents of dependent children, though others qualify. The program is financed entirely with federal funds (although states supply trainees with their previous level of payments and services)." (p. 115)

Transfer of management of work training programs from the Welfare Administration to the Labor Department would have several advantages. A recent proposal to make the federal government the "employer of last resort" for the hard-core unemployed is not likely to be adopted because of high costs.

3. McMILLEN, Sherrrill D. "Program for Depressed Area," Programs for the Educationally Disadvantaged. Bulletin 1963, No. 17, pp. 11-16. OE 35044. Washington, D.C. 20402: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1963. 50 cents.

The West Virginia State Department of Education, Division of Vocational Education, assisted by the Department of Employment Security, undertook a massive program of: (1) training and retraining adults for employment; (2) a more limited project of academic work (high school equivalency) to prepare adults to take vocational training and meet employers' requirements; (3) a pilot project, making one year job training mandatory for drop-outs.

Salaries for the retraining program were provided by the state legislature, and space by local schools. Staff was from the Division of Vocational Education. For the second phase, "An Ungraded Academic Program for Adults," staff were qualified teachers with broad experience in training youth and adults.

In the first 1½ years, 302 courses were started, with 5,787 adults enrolled; 2,760 completed the course and 1,475 were known to be employed. In 1962, 20 unemployed adults in each of 3 pilot counties were tested and chosen by the Department of Employment for the academic program.

The adults were recruited through announcements by county school superintendents and employment officers, with promise of help in finding jobs.

Need for "constant evaluation" was recognized; research was not completed at the time of this report.

A. Survey of job opportunities, level of education of the unemployed in the state, and preparation needed for available jobs preceded the training program. More than half the unemployed had not finished high school.

B. Subjects to be evaluated throughout the project:
   1. Effectiveness of the student guides and need for revisions of materials prepared for the courses,
   2. Staff required, and qualifications,
   3. Testing and guidance program needed for selection and evaluation,
   4. Programs, instructional aids, reference materials, and supplies required,
   5. The psychological barriers involved when individuals who have dropped out of school either accept or reject the opportunity for further training.

4. PARTON, Margaret. "Help Wanted," Woman's Day (July 1967), pp. 68, 88-89, and 102.

Available: Woman's Day, BCOP, Post Office Box 1000, Greenwich, Connecticut 06830. While supply lasts, back issues not more than 3 years old can be ordered for 35 cents.

The Colorado Department of Employment in Denver conducted a federally sponsored Household Employment Program in 1965 to investigate the problem of domestic help and develop new solutions.

A 9-week training program was offered, but the low status of domestic employment limited enrollment to desperately poor women unprepared for anything else. Counseling and basic education helped improve trainees' self-respect and confidence.

The National Committee on Household Employment, established in 1965, is "a nonprofit organization designed to upgrade the social and economic status of household workers and to serve as a liaison with government, private and community agencies that are working in this field." (p. 88) Committees are being organized across the country to work on "standards for working conditions, vocational training, and employer — employee relations." (p. 88)

Examples are given of pilot projects sponsored by the committee to discover and demonstrate "new methods of recruiting, counseling and training household workers." (p. 88) Though financed by the Department of Labor now, there is hope some will become self-supporting employment agencies. One pilot is a company that trains maids and other household help and contracts with customers on an hourly basis.

A Handbook for Leaders is available from the National Committee on Household Employment, 1346 Connecticut Avenue NW, Washington, D.C. 20036.

5. ROEBLING, Mary G. "Associate Wanted," McCall's, 95:9 (June 1968), pp. 4-5.

Changing the title of "maid" to "household assistant" will not make the occupation more attractive without changes of attitude and benefits competitive with business--standardized pay, health insurance, regular work hours, normal fringe benefits.

Training centers sponsored by the U.S. Department of Labor and the National Committee on Household Employment are mentioned. Emphasis is on the value to the employer of spending more of her discretionary money on professionally trained help and on changing the status of domestic help.

6. SVIRIDOFF, Mitchell. "The Manpower Problem - A View from a Bridgehead," Paper prepared for Ford Project Directors' Meeting, San Juan, Puerto Rico. Mimeographed, December 14, 1964. 14 pp.

Available: Very limited supply from Mitchell Sviridoff, Vice-President, The Ford Foundation, 320 East 43 Street, New York, New York 10017.

Even with successful implementation of legislation and economic growth, problems of chronic or structural unemployment are likely to remain for 3 reasons: (1) rate of technological change, (2) population increases, (3) ". . . [the need for] drastic changes in the policies of our education and employment institutions, as well as an enormous expansion of their services." (p. 2)

Most of the paper is a listing of problems and how the available tools (provided in existing legislation) might be made more effective. Several problems listed are variations on the general theme that training offered in special manpower programs and in schools frequently is planned without knowledge of, or reference to, actual job openings or skills needed on existing jobs. Job training programs intended to train the "hard-to-reach" must have more supportive functions, such as counseling, health, remedial education, and social services.

Experimental and demonstration projects are needed to stimulate established institutions to change, and to use staff in ways that are relevant to new circumstances.

7. "HOUSEHOLD Employment Courses Funded," Journal of Home Economics, 60:5 (May 1968), p. 358.

Pilot programs in training women for household employment have been funded by the U.S. Department of Labor and U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare in 7 cities. The National Committee on Household Employment has helped local agencies develop programs, and has a contract for the supervision, coordination, and evaluation of 7 projects. The cities, sponsors, and programs are listed.

8. HOUSES, Schools and Jobs in the Philadelphia Metropolitan Area. Philadelphia Council for Community Advancement. Philadelphia, October 1966. 20 pp.

Available: P.C.C.A., 603 Land Title Building, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19110.

Houses, schools, and jobs are essential ingredients of any urban development effort. In Philadelphia, jobs have been more neglected than housing and schools. Total employment in Philadelphia has declined, though it has increased in the metropolitan area. In 1964, 7.8% of the city labor force was unemployed, 5.8% in the metropolitan area. At the same time, per capita income was higher in Philadelphia than in the metropolitan area or the nation, suggesting a potential for conflict if the gap widens between rich and poor.

Several recommendations are made, pointed toward more effective communication between business and local government and systematic job development.

P.C.C.A. is a nonprofit corporation, organized by the Ford Foundation in 1962, and reorganized in 1965 as an independent civic agency working on problems of urban development in the field of human services.

9. MANAGEMENT Aide in Low-Rent Public Housing Project, A Suggested Training Program. Office of Education, Division of Vocational and Technical Education. No. F.S. 5.287:87001. Washington, D.C. 20402: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1964. 12 pp. 20 cents.

With recognition that home economists can help prepare women for wage earning as well as homemaking, leaders in adult education in home economics were included in a series of work conferences in 1963, directed by the Professional Services Section of the Manpower Development and Training Program, U.S. Office of Education.

Participants selected 9 occupations, based on home economics knowledge and skills, which "provide a service to families within an institutional or community setting or within the home." (p. iii) Job analyses, job descriptions, suggestions for developing local training programs, and resource material have been prepared for each of the 9 occupations.

Community-focused occupations that use home economics knowledge and skills are: (1) child-day-care-center worker, (2) management aide in low-rent public-housing projects, (3) visiting homemaker, (4) hotel and motel housekeeping aide, and (5) supervised food-service worker.

Home-focused occupations that use home economics knowledge and skills are (1) clothing maintenance specialist, (2) companion to an elderly person, (3) family dinner service specialist, and (4) the homemaker's assistant.

The proposed 360-hour course for management aide includes 3 units:

Achieving Effective Working Relationships With People -- 90 hours
Assisting Tenants with Family Living Problems and Housing Project Life -- 192 hours
Additional Tasks of the Management Aide -- 78 hours.

10. "O.I.C. -- The Key to the Future." Opportunities Industrialization Centers (O.I.C.). Mimeographed. Undated. 3 pp.

Available: Opportunities Industrialization Center, 184 Dudley
Street, Roxbury, Massachusetts 02119.

O.I.C. is a self-help organization supported partially by the Department of Labor through the ABCD (a Boston agency) and partially by contributions of money, equipment, materials, and services from individuals and businesses.

It is patterned on a similar independent effort that began in Philadelphia and has been copied in Bedford-Stuyvesant, Los Angeles, and elsewhere.

The focus is on counseling, job training, referral, and job development in private industry. The training program includes a feeder program and technical training. The feeder program includes basic education according to individual needs, minority history, personal development, job-finding and test-taking techniques, and consumer education. Upon placement, trainer-coaches work closely with trainees to help with adjustment problems.

11. TRAINING Nonprofessional Workers for Human Services, A Manual of Organization and Development. Institute for Youth Studies. Washington, D.C.: Center for Community Studies, Howard University, May 1966. 56 pp.

Available: National Information Clearinghouse on New Careers,
University Research Corporation, 1424 16th Street NW, Washington, D.C. 20036

The institute's work was supported in part by grant #65218, Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

Over a 2-year period, the Institute for Youth Studies conducted training programs for persons (mostly young) without the conventional preparation for professional work. Evaluation of the training programs was carried on concurrently.

The training programs followed 3 patterns: (1) focus on the experimental training process, (2) focus on skills needed by agencies, (3) focus on the trainee, especially the effect of the program on him.

The manual gives practical advice on the elements found necessary in all training programs, the problems encountered, and research still needed. Detailed research findings are not included, but the training methods, working relationships with agencies, and problems of job development are discussed.

The distinctive feature of the training program is reliance on the "core group" of 6 to 10 trainees and a leader. The core group provides the support of the peer group and the opportunity to develop skills in interpersonal relationships, especially when anxieties, tensions, and conflicts erupt among members of the group. The group is also the setting for instruction in background subjects and job skills. Group meetings continue during the period of on-the-job training, though less often than at the start of training.

The Institute for Youth Studies directed by Dr. Jacob R. Fishman, publishes extensively through the University Research Corporation. Relevant publications received too late to be abstracted include:

1. Training for New Careers. President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime. This describes the Community Apprentice program.

2. New Careers: Entry-Level Training for the Human Service Aide, U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Bureau of Work-Training Programs.

3. New Careers: Procedural Guide for Program Development. Sourcebook for Trainers, U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Bureau of Work-Training Programs. Revised April 1968, Appendix E consists of a 13-page comprehensive bibliography on new careers and the use of subprofessionals in Human Services.

4. *New Careers: A Manual of Organization and Development*. Sourcebook for Trainers. U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Bureau of Work-Training Programs. See Chapter V on research and program evaluation in relation to training of nonprofessionals.

5. "High School Training for New Careers in Human Services," reprint from *The National Elementary Principal*, 46:6 (May 1967), pp. 22-28.

V. INDIGENOUS NONPROFESSIONALS

1. BRAGER, George. "The Indigenous Worker: A New Approach to the Social Work Technician," Social Work, 10:4 (April 1965), pp. 33-40.

   Employment of low-income, nonprofessional persons in social agencies has some advantages both for the persons employed and the agencies.

   The goals of the agency should determine the characteristics of persons employed, i.e., upward-mobile persons ready to identify with the middle class may be wanted by some agencies, while others, like Mobilization for Youth, want persons able to maintain identification with their own people.

   Brager, formerly a codirector of MFY, summarizes the agency's experience with nonprofessionals. A characteristic which helped the agency was the nonprofessionals' ability to communicate with other low-income people, while their pressure for an activist program influenced the agency itself.

   It was impossible to tell whether the nonprofessionals contributed to success in reaching specific program goals, such as improvement in housekeeping practices of area residents.

   Nonprofessionals were not successful in improving communication between indigenous persons and other local institutions.

2. BRODSKY, Rose and Dora Goldfarb. "The Employment Process in Selecting Homemakers," Social Casework, 31:1 (January 1950), pp. 18-22.

   Available: The Association for Homemaker Service, Inc.
   432 Park Avenue South, New York, New York 10016.

   Two voluntary agencies with which Mrs. Brodsky has been associated over a period of years, have found that the process of selecting homemakers is that of an employer selecting employees. Though casework and diagnostic skills are needed, and though the process may show that the applicant needs personal help, the basic relationship to be maintained is an employer-employee one, not an agency-client one.

   The application process should not take more than two weeks nor less than one, and usually includes two or three interviews and a medical examination.

   Many applicants are likely to know little about the service of the agency or the content of the job.

   This paper suggests various ways to use interview time and the other steps in the application to help the agency and the applicant reach a decision.

3. CHILMAN, Catherine S. "Evaluation of Work Experience Training Program for AFDC Mothers who are Being Trained as Teacher's Aides in Four Day Care Centers in Los Angeles: A Pilot Project." Mimeographed, 1967. 11 pp. And

COREY, Dorothy D. "Outline for an Evaluation of the Work Experience Training Program for AFDC Mothers (Aid to Families With Dependent Children) in Training as Teacher's Aides in Day Care Centers in Los Angeles - A Pilot Study." Mimeographed, 1967. 8 pp.

Available: For more recent reports on this project consult Dr. Chilman, Intramural Research Division, Social and Rehabilitation Service, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C. 20201.

The Corey paper is a revision of the Chilman proposal with more specific formulation of problems and measurements.

The project plan called for training 80 AFDC mothers as Teachers' Aides in 4 day-care centers in Los Angeles, and comparing them with a control group. Research was to test some of the current beliefs as to the value of the training experience to the individual and contributions of subprofessionals working with professionals. It would also test the relationship, if any, between child-care information and attitudes and child-caring behavior.

There is emphasis on self-esteem, anxiety, occupational aspiration, etc., as related to success in training and working.

"In sum, the specific aim of this pilot project is to examine the effectiveness of a work training program for AFDC mothers and to explore some of the associated factors and auxiliary outcomes of such a program." (Corey, p. 2)

4. ESTERS, Allee et al. New Careerist Casebook Number One: School Community Workers. Richmond Community Development Demonstration Project Publication 112, March 1967. 56 pp. And

COLEMAN, Noble E. et al. New Careerist Casebook Number Two: Police Community Aides and Probation Aides. Richmond Community Development Demonstration Project Publication 113, June 1967. 67 pp.

Available: Bay Area Social Planning Council, 2717 North Main Street, Suite #9, Walnut Creek, California 94596. $1.00 each.

The material in these two pamphlets was chosen "to exemplify how new careerists actually perceive and act on service problems assigned to them." (#112, p. 14) Analysis of strong and weak points is being prepared as a separate, major publication. These two casebooks are referred to in "Case Conference on the Neighborhood Subprofessional Worker," Children, 15:1 (January-February 1968), and have the distinction of being reports by rather than about nonprofessionals.

The individual case stories are touching, and show repeatedly the aides' strong identification with the families and children they helped. Comments on the professionals are limited, but revealing, especially reports on exchanges of information between professionals and nonprofessionals and on nonprofessionals seeking direction from professionals. The aide's role of intermediary is shown in several cases, but more frequently the aide reports on a supportive role, and a very time-consuming, sympathetic type of communication with families and children in an effort to carry out agency function, such as getting children to school regularly or keeping older children out of trouble.

"The Richmond Police Department is the first law enforcement agency in the United States to experimentally employ low-income persons as a means to improving police services and community relations." (#113, p. 17) The casebook includes examples from three Probation Department programs--street work, a daytime treatment activity, and a detention center. Short biographies of the aides are included.

5. FISHMAN, Jacob R., Robert M. Carr, Joseph C. Paige, Sheldon S. Steinberg, and Elwood Tarb, eds. Position Descriptions for New Careers -- 1. Entry Level. Washington, D.C., New Careers Development program, 1968.

   Available: National Information Clearinghouse on New Careers,
   University Research Corporation, 1424 16th Street NW, Washington,
   D.C. 20036.

   Publication of this volume was financed by the U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Bureau of Work-Training Programs. It includes descriptions for positions included in a significant number of New Careers proposals in twenty cities. They are positions thought from previous experience to be suitable for both entry level and vertical ladder job development.

   The preface describes in detail steps to be followed in job development in New Careers.

   The positions are in the following fields: health, education, law enforcement, social services, corrections and rehabilitation, housing and employment services.

   Each job description includes name of position, supervisory control, general and specific description of duties, minimum educational requirements or other special requirements, special skills required, and career lattice.

   In the case of home management aides I and II, some of the duties are similar to those pictured for home economics aides in other projects.

   In the housing field the three positions are Housing Project Patrol Aide, Management Aide I, and Management Aide II. Some of the duties of Management Aides I and II are the same as those usually included in "teaching homemaker," "program assistant" and similar jobs. Under community services there are descriptions of Neighborhood Information Aide, Neighborhood Worker and Outreach Worker which also to some extent resemble the descriptions of aides in Cooperative Extension programs.

6. GOLDBERG, G.S. "Job and Career Development for the Poor -- The Human Services," IRCD Bulletin, 11:4 (September 1966), pp. 1-5.

   The War on Poverty has resulted in more services for the poor, but has not eliminated poor people's need for money, either in the form of wages or transfer payments. Income-transfer programs are the answer for mothers caring for young children, the aged and disabled. "But for the poor who are available for work, the unemployed, the underemployed, those who cease to be counted because they no longer look for jobs, and particularly for the young people, holding a job is a solution more likely to add to their self-esteem and their sense of participation in society." (p. 1). Although employment opportunities have decreased in automated fields, there are serious personnel shortages in the human services (health, education, and welfare).

The phrase, "New Careers for the Poor," popularized as the title of a book by Frank Riessman and Arthur Pearl, represents a strategy that proponents believe would simultaneously attack 3 problems:

1. Personnel shortages in human services;
2. Unemployment and under-employment;
3. Need for improvement in quality and quantity of services to poor people as clients.

In addition, there is some interest in "helper therapy," a theory that the poor person himself grows in the process of helping others.

This issue includes Goldberg's review of the claims of proponents and opponents, especially in regard to employment of poor people and the effect on services for poor people, a chart using education as a model for steps in new careers, and a 7-page bibliography on the "Non-Professional in the Human Services." The conclusion is that "New Careers could be a strategy for failing simultaneously to cope with three social problems" (p. 5) if the complexity of the related issues is not recognized.

Many non-professionals are currently employed in EOA programs, but their success has rarely been evaluated in a carefully planned and coordinated action and research program. Little is known about real possibilities for career advancement.

Two unanswered questions concern (1) the capacity of the adult poor to master the knowledge necessary for upward mobility, and (2) whether those who do move up will lose their unique value to serve as "bridges."

Arguments for and against the value of non-professionals are reviewed, with some writers holding that the net result is to decrease the quality of service to the poor, and others believing service will improve.

Some difficulties arise from relationships between professionals and non-professionals and from prejudices of both professionals and non-professionals toward the poor.

There is some evidence that anti-poverty programs so far have been "creaming" the low-risk candidates for employment and promotion from among the poor.

It is essential to recognize different degrees of difficulty among non-professional jobs and a wide range of capacity and trainability among the poor. The service potential of new non-professionals should be honestly evaluated to avoid future disappointment.

As a means of relieving unemployment the "New Careers" idea has in its favor the fact that service professions resist automation and have shortages. On the other side, a plan for long-term employment leads to serious questions about selection, training, opportunity for advancement, training of supervisors, and allocations of funds, which call for careful and objective investigation.

7. HINZE, Richard H. "Research on Teacher Effectiveness and the Efficacy of Teacher Training Techniques," Research, Change, and Social Responsibility: An Illustrative Model from Early Education, DARCEE Papers and Reports, 2:3 (1967), pp. 9-13.

   Available: Demonstration and Research Center for Early Education, George Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, Tenn. 37203.

   Along with research and demonstration, DARCEE is engaged in the training of professionals enrolled for degrees and also in many short-term training programs for personnel working with young children.

   Urgent needs are recognized for the "design, testing, and implementation of quality in-service training programs for sub-professionals," and "the design of more efficient and effective professional training procedures for supervisory personnel to equip them to implement quality in-service training programs." (p. 4)

   A staff member designed an in-service training program and tested 3 ways to train teacher aides for work in Child Development Centers in Mississippi. In addition to demonstrating success in training aides, she found that it was essential to include all segments of a staff in in-service training in order to maintain communications and staff relationships.

   In view of critical personnel shortages at all levels in the South, the center decided to develop and test methods of training the trainers of subprofessional aides. Three team leaders (second-year graduate students) and 6 team members (college graduates) were being trained at the time of this report to conduct in-service training programs for aides in 6 child development centers in the Elk River area of southern Tennessee. Team leaders are trained in observation techniques and have kept diaries, which have been used as the basis for modifying the program.

   Pre- and post-measures of aides include 4 general areas: aptitude, attitude, achievement, and work samples. One of the problems is the low literacy level of the sub-professionals.

8. MACLENNAN, Beryce W., Jacob R. Fishman, William L. Klein, William H. Denham, Walter L. Walker, and Lonnie E. Mitchell. "The Implications of the Nonprofessional in Community Mental Health." Paper presented at the 43rd Annual Meeting of the American Ortho-psychiatric Association, San Francisco, Calif., April 13-16, 1966. 14 pp.

Available: J.R. Fishman, Howard University College of Medicine, Washington, D.C.

"The employment of the indigenous nonprofessional both as a mental health specialist and as a contributor to mental health through human service and community action has implications for the individual, the organization of institutions, the social organization and the future of society." (p. 13)

Mental health is defined as "a state in which an individual satisfies his physical, emotional, and intellectual needs without undue conflict with himself or his environment. A mentally healthy community is one which enables the large majority of its members to live in this condition. . . ." (p. 1)

This paper describes the purposes and time allocations of the training programs conducted by the Center for Youth and Community Studies at Howard University. The aims of training "have been to encourage the aide to increase his self-respect, to review his goals for himself, his standards and values, and to study how his ways of dealing with difficult, conflictual, and anxiety-provoking situations prevent the satisfaction of his desires." (p. 8) Both the training in the core group and the entry level job are a type of mental health intervention.

The effect on the institution employing nonprofessionals and on the neighborhoods served is also discussed.

Most of the content of this paper is applicable to any human service organization employing nonprofessionals, but the analysis of what happens to the employee and the community is in terms of mental health. The authors see comunity organization as closely interwoven with community mental health.

Bibliography included.

9. REIFF, Robert and Frank Riessman. "The Indigenous Nonprofessional, A Strategy of Change in Community Action and Community Mental Health Programs," Community Mental Health Journal Monograph Series, No. 1, 1965. 32 pp.

Available: Behavioral Publications Inc., 2852 Broadway, New York, New York 10025. $1.50.

This monograph appeared first as the third in a series published by the Mental Health Program of the National Institute of Labor Education (NILE) with support from the National Institute of Mental Health. Earlier reports in the NILE series dealt with "Issues in the New National Mental Health Program Relating to Labor and Low-Income Groups," and "New Approaches to Mental Health Treatment for Labor and Low-Income Groups."

This report develops the idea that indigenous non-professionals, when appropriately selected, trained, and assigned, can be instrumental in bringing about desirable changes in the way established health, education, and welfare agencies perform their services. Used the wrong way, non-professionals merely provide a facade.

The essential characteristic of the indigenous non-professional is his ability to serve as a bridge between professional and persons served. This ability arises from what he is, not what he has been taught.

Aides employed as therapeutic agents in a variety of service programs enable an agency to reach more people. In addition, an expediter is needed "to represent the clients' interests against all the tendencies in all the agencies that may delay or deprive the client of the agencies' services." (p. 17) The expediter serves as interpreter, negotiator, lay attorney, educator, instructor, and helper. The prototype in the representative who helps members of a union or a veterans organization establish claims to benefits, but the expediter should work to improve the system, not only by-pass it for the benefit of his clientele. The expediter may have his base of power outside or inside the service agency. This report recommends location in a complex of services such as a community action or community mental health program.

Training for specific jobs is needed, but some general principles should be followed regardless of subject matter. Several are listed, such as the need for continuous on-the-job training with tasks phased to become gradually more complex rather than a very long initial training period which adds to tension and anxiety.

Some general guidelines for selecting non-professionals are listed, with stress on their being indigenous and having a continuing and close association with the area and people to be served. Ability to work comfortably with others on the agency staff, across class lines, is important, as well as capacity and desire to learn and develop.

A 3-page bibliography lists articles in periodicals, papers given at conferences, and a few books. The practical advice on selection, training, supervision, and problems is based on the experiences of many agencies.

10. RIESSMAN, Frank. "Strategies and Suggestions for Training Non-professionals," Community Mental Health Journal, 3:2 (Summer 1967), pp. 103-110.

"Problems related to the introduction and training of nonprofessionals in various structures (neighborhood service centers, service agencies, etc.) are presented. New approaches to phased, on-the-job training and the co-ordination of training and supervision are proposed. Problems related to the role ambiguity of the nonprofessional are discussed. Ten recommendations are offered relating to the formation of nonprofessional groups and unions, the development of career lines, the new participation ideology of indigenous nonprofessionals (distinguishing them from traditional nonprofessionals, e.g., psychiatric aides), the limitations of traditional T groups (sensitivity groups), etc." (resumé. p. 103).

Dr. Riessman writes from the perspective of his position as Director of the New Careers Development Center and Professor of Education Sociology at

New York University. He was formerly Director, Mental Health Aide Program of Lincoln Hospital Mental Health Services, New York.

11. RICHARDS, Evan. "They Tell It Like It Is," Health News, 44:6 (June 1967), pp. 4-11.

The Health Guide Program is ". . . a double-barreled effort in which specially trained housewives from the neighborhood describe and promote existing public health services to their neighbors on a down-to-earth, mother-to-mother basis. At the same time, and with the neighbors' consent, the visiting Health Guides gather information for a sociological study. This study of attitudes, clinic attendance, and other factors will help measure the effectiveness of the first half of the program." (p. 5)

The program is based on the idea that people from the community will be able to communicate better than professionals and to act as intermediaries. The precedent was use of men from the ranks in the U.S. Army in World War II to convey to the less educated troops various messages about avoiding disease that the officers could not get across.

Health officers are concerned about increasing infant death rates and underuse of available clinics.

Women were chosen who ". . . showed natural leadership, women who could digest information, those whom other people naturally turn to." (p. 7)

Guides work 20 hours per week, at $1.50 per hour, and are encouraged to think of their work as public service. Each started with 25 families; more families were assigned later. The guides meet with their supervisor once a week, and sometimes have health department officers present.

Note: Health News is a monthly publication of the New York State Department of Health, Albany, New York 12208.

12. SPECHT, Harry, Arthur Hawkins, and Floyd McGee. "Case Conference on the Neighborhood Subprofessional Worker," Children, 15:1 (January-February 1968), pp. 7-16.

Part I, by 2 subprofessional neighborhood workers and their former supervisor, is a plea for evaluation, recognition, and professional status in social agencies for people who learn on the job as well as for those with academic training. Case records have been assembled to provide the basis for evaluation. About 125,000 subprofessional workers are said to be serving in OEO community poverty programs throughout the country.

Part II, by two teachers in professional schools of social work and two child welfare workers, acknowledges the importance and significance of the work of the neighborhood workers, but each in his own way points out differences between professional and subprofessional. Each uses the cases quoted in Part I to show deficiencies in the neighborhood workers' evaluation of the situation, as well as genuine services. They offer criteria for distinguishing between professional and subprofessional, especially knowledge and disciplined use of skill. Emphasis is on assignment of staff according to differential needs of the people to be served.

VI. RESEARCH

A. Descriptive Research: People, Problems, and Services

1. BROWN, Minnie Miller, Jewel G. Fessenden, and C. Paul Marsh. "A Study of North Carolina Negro Homemakers," Extension Evaluation Study, No. IV, The North Carolina Agricultural Extension Service (September 1964). 120 pp. Abstract in PHRA 1:5 (September-October 1966), p. 95. (Original not seen and not available.)

This is "a report on a statewide study of the home demonstration program in nine representative counties in North Carolina with detailed data on club members and non-members." (p. 95)

The survey included data about families and their attitudes and interests. Questions about preferences for media showed, for example, that "as income increased preference for radio as first choice decreased, while preferences for meetings increased." (p. 95)

2. CAPLOVITZ, David. The Poor Pay More: Consumer Practices of Low-Income Families. New York: The Free Press, 1963. 192 pp. Abstract in PHRA, 1:1 (January-February 1966), #26.

A study of the consumer habits of 464 families in New York City showed that they were frequently exploited when they purchased durable goods. Purchases probably served as "compensatory consumption." Most of the families were from the rural south, Puerto Rico, or Europe.

To prevent exploitation there is need for legislation to protect low-income consumers and also for direct efforts to help families develop greater shopping skills.

3. CHILMAN, Catherine S. "The Crisis and Challenge of Low-Income Families in the 1960's: Implications for Parent Education," Journal of Marriage and the Family, 26:1 (February 1964), pp. 39-43.

After reviewing statistics indicating that from one- to two-fifths of the population live in poverty, some of the reasons for continued poverty in the midst of general prosperity, and the expectation that the gap between affluent and poor will increase, Dr. Chilman discusses the need for "professionals in the treatment disciplines . . . to help families adjust to their society. They need to help them to develop communications skills, to become goal-oriented, to value education and learning, to expect something from life other than defeat, and to develop a sense of commitment to the mainstream of culture which, at the moment, is passing them by." (p. 42)

Family workers, she says, should not try to impose a different value system upon disadvantaged families but can and should help those who want to move up in the socio-economic scale. Most low-income parents share the American dream of better things for their children but most consider their dreams hopeless.

The best ways to help the disadvantaged make fuller use of their potential capacities are not known. An experimental attitude should be maintained in planning programs. Program results should be evaluated objectively--"if the tools for such evaluations can be devised." (p. 42)

4. DENTLER, Robert A. and Mary Ellen Warsbauer. The Big City Drop-Outs. New York: Center for Urban Education, 1965.

"The purpose of this study was to identify the extent, distribution, and social and economic correlates of functional illiteracy among adults and withdrawal from high school among youths, across the largest cities in the United States." (p. 69) The personal characteristics of drop-outs, summarized as "educationally disadvantaged," were recognized; but the study itself was based on 1960 census data from 155 cities and records of public expenditures for education, welfare, housing, and other programs. The method of arriving at drop-out and illiteracy rates for each city is described, as well as the elaborate statistical treatment of the data on such variables as housing, income, employment, occupation, race, and public expenditures. Conclusions are based on intercity comparisons of drop-out and illiteracy rates and associated variables.

The major conclusion was that ". . . national and state economic policies, including programs of social insurance, may be of substantial importance in fostering increased educational attainment, while school and welfare programs that attempt to deal directly with drop-out prevention or literacy are irrelevant if not futile." (p. xi)

The drop-out rate has declined steadily for many years, but technological changes have increased the training required for job security; unemployment among youth, with or without high school graduation has increased, especially for non-whites.

The number of jobs for recent drop-outs, recent high school graduates, and newly literate adults is so limited that literacy training projects, which the government was supporting while this study was going on, seem unlikely to result in employment for more than a small fraction of those currently unemployed.

Three findings were thought to have program implications:

1. "Cities with higher proportions of drop outs and illiterates than expected tend to be cities with higher than average educational, health and public welfare expenditures." (p. 65)

2. The character of educational or welfare programs is not associated with levels of drop-outs and illiteracy.

3. "The public sectors of municipal economy . . . do not equalize, and usually fail to . . . compensate for differences in life prospects, let alone remedy problems or strengthen opportunities." (p. 65)

The message of the book is not to oppose educational and welfare programs, but to indicate that as now supported they are inadequate to the problems of poverty and insecurity among urban youth. Massive changes in poverty would require an active economy, with jobs in the private sector.

The "Study of Educational Barriers to Economic Security" was supported by a grant from the Social Security Administration, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare.

5. ELMAN, Richard M. The Poorhouse State: The American Way of Life on Public Assistance. New York: Random House (Pantheon), 1966. 305 pp.

Both the administration of public assistance and the laws providing for assistance are attacked, though it is admitted that alternatives, such as the guaranteed annual wage, also have deficiencies.

Most of the book is devoted to sketches of individuals whom Mr. Elman interviewed after approaching them near a New York City public welfare office and offering $5 for their trouble.

The inadequacy of welfare allowances, the arbitrary nature of decisions by Welfare Department employees, and the necessity of knowing all the special rules for obtaining help beyond the monthly food and rent are brought out. The role of the Mobilization for Youth worker is shown sympathetically.

Note: It is impossible to tell how typical the cases are, but the stories succeed in making the people seem alive and human. Mr. Elman has been a research assistant at the Columbia School of Social Work and shows detailed knowledge of laws and regulations.

6. GEISMAR, Ludwig L. and Michael A. LaSorte. "Factors Associated with Family Disorganization," Marriage and Family Living, 25:4 (November 1963), pp. 479-481.

Of the 300 families living in a low-income federal housing project in New Haven, 75 were studied to determine what factors predispose families to disorganization. The St. Paul Scale of Family Functioning (commonly known as the Geismar Scale) was used, "rating role performance of family members on a seven point continuum, ranging from a level of functioning considered inadequate to functioning defined as adequate. . . ," (p. 479) using as criteria "the welfare of family members and the degree of harmony and conflict between the behavior of family members and community expectations." (p. 479)

For each family, data were collected to show the family's level of functioning at the time of the interview and also family background, including events leading to marriage and postmarital experiences.

One purpose of the project was to compare, within a low-income population, the most stable with the most disorganized. The 36 most malfunctioning had already been chosen and offered intensive casework services. The 39 considered most stable were chosen by agencies and housing management.

Differences between the 2 groups were borne out by their ratings on present level of functioning, though the total was divided into high, middle, and low groups. Data on early antecedents for the 3 groups were compared.

There was evidence that "certain patterns of functioning differentiate the disorganized from the stable families very early in their career." (p. 481) The disorganized more frequently had an age difference of more than 6 years between husband and wife, conflict during courtship, premarital pregnancies, and unrealistic expectations regarding married life.

There was reason to think that factors in the families of orientation of present heads of households also affect disorganization, but additional data would be needed to support a firm conclusion.

Note: For a more recent and more complete report on this project see: Geismar, Ludwig L. and Jane Krisberg. The Forgotten Neighborhood: Site of an Early Skirmish in the War on Poverty, Metuchen, New Jersey: The Scarecrow Press, Inc., 1967. 396 pp.

7. GORDON, Joan. The Poor of Harlem: Social Functioning in the Underclass. New York: Office of the Mayor, Interdepartmental Neighborhood Service Center, 145 West 125 Street, 1965. 167 pp. Not available except in university libraries.

In 1959, New York City set up an Interdepartmental Neighborhood Service Center to serve multi-problem families in a 40-square-block area within Central Harlem. The purpose was to reduce fragmentation of services and thereby improve the functioning of families and their social environment.

Research funded by the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare in 1962-63 and 1963-64 was intended to develop "hypotheses about social functioning of multi-problem families, develop measures of adequacy in social functioning . . ." (p. 8), and to analyze the data.

Measurement of adequacy was attempted in 3 areas:

1. Making and providing a living, measured by the mother's housing situation, job experience, consumer behavior, and welfare experience;

2. Development of skills and potential, measured by the mother's performance in regard to formal education of her children and by child-rearing practices;

3. Relating to others, defined less precisely, but including "neighboring."

Adequacy was to be assessed in terms of the individual's behavior, knowledge, and attitudes on scales developed by the investigators for this population.

In many cases different levels of adequacy were found in the different areas of functioning. It was concluded that program planners could not assume that training for adequacy in one area would carry over into another. There was no indication that the mothers interviewed did not share the central values of American culture.

Several changes in the research design had to be made because of difficulties in using records and in finding the people to be interviewed. The scales used and a bibliography are included.

The number of cases does not justify firm conclusions or elaborate statistical treatment, but the handling of practical problems in conducting research in Harlem is of interest.

This report does not include any program evaluation.

8. HENRY, Jules. "White People's Time, Colored People's Time," Trans-action, 2:3 (March-April 1965), pp. 31-34.

The Pruitt-Igoe housing project in St. Louis was one of the areas selected for study of the effectiveness of concerted services (as compared to fragmented services) by the Joint Task Force of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare and the Housing Administration in 1961. Washington University contracted to do the research related to the project, but the study reported here was supported by the NIMH and is not an evaluation of a program. It is an anthropological study of the habits, and especially the attitudes, of 50 families living in Pruitt-Igoe.

The project is occupied by extremely poor Negro families and is isolated from the social and economic life of the city. The isolation of the project fosters illusion rather than contact with reality.

The families studied were aware that their attitudes differed from those of the researchers (and other middle-class whites) with respect to space, time, objects, and persons. They lacked patterns of organization and predictability.

The motivation of the children is for survival, not goal striving or status-seeking. There is no hope. The pattern is not hedonism but a "flight from death."

The prevailing pattern of disorganization and illusion makes teaching difficult in the local schools. Many teachers work with the few children able and motivated to respond, and ignore the others.

The behavior of a person with no expectations or hope for himself or his children is disorganized. "Time, Space and Objects really exist for us only when we have hope." (p. 33) The remainder of the article discusses how to improve the schools as a social system to stimulate the children to greater achievement. Nothing is said about ways to change parents, and from the overall tone of the report one would not expect much change to be possible.

Note: Two more recent articles on Pruitt-Igoe not included in this bibliography are:

Rainwater, Lee. "The Lessons of Pruitt-Igoe," Public Interest, 8 (Summer 1967), published by Washington University, St. Louis, pp. 116-126.

"Pruitt-Igoe: Survival in a Concrete Ghetto," Social Work, 12:4 (1967), pp. 3-13.

9. HERZOG, Elizabeth. "Some Assumptions About the Poor," Social Service Review, 37:4 (December 1963), pp. 389-402.

Evidence for and against 3 frequently made assumptions about the poor is reviewed, with the warning that it is necessary to seek more evidence and keep an open mind.

The three assumptions examined are that:

"1. There is a culture of poverty.
2. The family and sex patterns of the poor differ from those of the middle class.
3. The family and sex patterns of poor Negroes differ from those of whites on the same socioeconomic level." (P. 390)

". . . in the view of this writer the culture of poverty is a very useful concept, if and only if it is used with discrimination, with recognition that poverty is a sub-culture, and with avoidance of the cookie-cutter approach." (p. 395)

There is adequate evidence to support the assumption that the family and sex patterns of the poor differ from those of the middle-class, but not much about how they differ.

One big obstacle to assessing the third assumption is "that adequate controlling of socioeconomic factors is rarely found." (p. 396) The result is that many studies in the past have not distinguished adequately between the effects of race and the effects of socioeconomic status. A few recent studies of family and sex patterns in which socioeconomic level has been held constant have found little difference between Negroes and whites among the urban poor. More evidence is needed before conclusions are drawn.

Included is a long list of references to studies of characteristics of the poor, and Negroes, especially with respect to family patterns.

10. IRELAN, Lola M., ed. Low Income Life Styles. Welfare Administration Publication No. 14. Washington, D.C. 20402: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966. 86 pp.

Each paper in this volume reviews what is known about characteristic behavior of the poor in an area of family life: family organization, children's preparation for school, health care, consumer practices, economic behavior, and general outlook on life.

This material is intended for "people and agencies trying to improve the quality of life for any group of people. 'Improvement' of any situation must be based upon understanding of it." (p. V) Each chapter includes references.

11. JOHNSON, Erwin and Grant Hanesworth. "The Situation Among Buffalo Negroes," Buffalo Alumnus, 6:1 (March 1967), pp. 12-15. (A paper read at the symposium, "Coping with Urban Life," in Section H of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at Washington, D.C. on December 31, 1966. 7 pp.)

Data were gathered over a 3-year period in the Commodore Perry Housing unit in the southeast section of Buffalo, New York. The total area, known as the Lower South Side, includes both public and private housing, with Negroes in the majority in the public housing and whites (Puerto Ricans and Italians) the majority in the whole area. Most Negroes lived in family groups and were assigned to high-rise buildings in the project. Most whites in the project were older people and were living in the older part of the project, made up of row houses. Other whites occupied the nearby private housing. The area studied had the largest number of agencies per capita in operation within the city. It was about 1/2 mile from the major Negro section of the city, separated from it by the Thruway and freight yards.

White graduate students assumed the role of Youth Board workers. The Youth Board staff was integrated, was exposed to both teenagers and parents, worked evenings as well as days, and had been accepted by the community. The Youth Board therefore provided an opportunity for an anthropological study of attitudes towards social service, the poverty programs, attitudes towards leadership, internal interpretation, and external participation.

"Conclusions

1. On the basis of our research it appears clear that lower socio-economic groups do not respond to services which are based on middle class assumptions.
2. Most individuals residing in the lower socio-economic areas interpret social services as recreation.
3. While it is generally assumed that there is a deterioration of the Negro family structure due to the absence of a male household member, this has proven in our research to be a misconception.
4. For the most part the Poverty Programs have not provided the sort of new ideas which are expected of the Negro community [sic].
5. The utilization of the traditional social service approaches to implement fundamental social change has proven ineffective.
6. There is serious misinterpretation of poverty as such which equates it with membership in a racial or ethnic minority. In our research, this is not borne out.
7. Persons residing in 'poverty' areas do not necessarily consider themselves to be deprived.

8. There are serious misunderstandings by people living outside poverty areas of life within such areas." (p. 15)

In addition, the author attempts to refute some misconceptions:

a. He found young people regarding as normal the behavior that agencies were attempting to change through their various programs.

b. The attitude of the Negro male when present was similar to that of other males of low socio-economic status, in that he was unlikely to be influenced by his wife or social agency representative when he had made a decision on a serious family matter.

c. People had no difficulty in understanding straightforward English, and expected their leaders to be able to speak clearly both to them and to the rest of the city.

d. The youth most prone to "antisocial" behavior were younger than 16--the minimum age for employment programs.

Dr. Johnson is a member of the Department of Anthropology at the State University of New York at Buffalo and Mr. Hanesworth is project coordinator for the Buffalo Youth Board. Theses by students participating in this study are being edited by Dr. Johnson for publication in the Buffalo Studies Series in 1969.

The project was financed by grant #MH 11650-1 from the NIMH.

12. LEBEAUX, Charles, "Life on A.D.C.: Budgets of Despair," Poverty in America, Ferman, Kornbluh and Haber, eds. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press, 1966, pp. 401-411.

Twenty-five members of the National Association of Social Workers and 25 social work students at Wayne State University, Detroit, interviewed 99 AFDC mothers in Detroit.

The purpose was "to arouse the moribund consciences of the city and state" by finding out how families lived on less than a minimum budget. The women interviewed were named as better than average managers by members of the Federation of AFDC Mothers. This organization was one of several that had protested a substantial cut in AFDC allowances affecting 6,000 of the 13,000 families receiving AFDC in Detroit at that time (1962).

The findings provide a detailed report on buying habits at the relief level: Diets were deficient. Food stamps were out of reach for many of the most needy because of some of the rules--such as having to buy stamps for the whole month at once or not at all, and not having that much cash at one time. The people making the survey found the answers hard to summarize. School clothes and supplies were a problem. Families often had no money at all for several days before an AFDC check was due.

The main emphasis is on ways families have to do without when income is extremely low, including the social costs--such as not wanting to go to school or church or Scouts when there is no money for appropriate clothing, transportation, or contributions.

13. McCABE, Alice R. "Re: Forty Forgotten Families," Public Welfare, Journal of the American Public Welfare Association, 24:2 (April 1966), pp. 159-171.

The Department of Public Affairs of the Community Service Society of New York, with help from the New York City Department of Public Welfare and the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, conducted a detailed study of 40 families receiving AFDC and living in East Harlem. This was one of 3 interrelated projects carried out by the Community Service Society's East Harlem Demonstration Center. All 3 projects had as goals understanding and ameliorating some of the problems of a neighborhood where both physical and social rehabilitation are needed.

The income level of the families studied was below the poverty level. Their most urgent need was for more money, but their social and psychological problems were frequently incapacitating.

Ten recommendations were made, mostly having to do with Welfare Department staffing and policy, the need for more adequate medical care and more nearly adequate levels of financial support.

Two are relevant for home economics programs:

> (9) ". . . most of the mothers needed help with budgeting, home management, interpersonal relations, dependency problems, and parent-child relationships." (p. 171)
>
> (10) ". . . group intervention rather than a one-to-one approach, is more likely to improve functioning. . . . Small groups for both adults and children are especially suitable for people with severe ego damage, strong dependency needs, and long-term financial deprivation." (p. 171)

The study was limited to families in which there was no recognized father at home, the mother was under 40, there were young children, and the oldest showed behavior usually considered to lead to antisocial acts later. The families were selected on the basis of Welfare Department records and questionnaires filled out by teachers about the child's behavior.

Mothers were interviewed for approximately 6 hours (in 3 or more sessions) about factual and attitudinal matters. Children were interviewed for 4 hours (in 2 sessions) and teachers for one-half hour. Children were also given a battery of psychological tests.

The data were collected in detail to serve as a measure of individual and family functioning, to provide a basis for comparison before and after a treatment program for treatment and control groups, and also to increase the agency's knowledge of the families as a guide to program planning. A rating schedule was constructed, drawing upon earlier scales of individual and family functioning. Some features of the PARI, Geismar, and other measures were incorporated.

The approach was carefully planned as it was thought the families might be unwilling to help in a research project where no service could be promised. Only 4 out of 44 approached refused to participate. Willingness to participate included giving permission for children to be interviewed and tested.

The report on the study does not indicate whether the treatment plan was ever carried out.

Note: The most complete report seen was the Progress Report on ADC Family Rehabilitation Project #068 by Alice R. McCabe, Principal Investigator, December 1964, 161 mimeographed pages. Miss McCabe was Staff Associate for Family and Child Welfare of the Community Service Society's Department of Public Affairs. The summary which was given as a speech and published in Public Welfare was abstracted in PHRA, 1:5 (September-October 1966), p. 53.

14. WILLIAMS, Walter. "Cleveland's Crisis Ghetto," Trans-action, 4:9 (September 1967), pp. 33-42.

Cleveland is the only major city for which a special census was conducted in 1965 which permits examination of citywide social and economic changes since 1960. The data show a widening gap between different strata of the population.

Nine low-income neighborhoods in the special census were grouped together and called the "Neighborhood." Four of them, including Hough, are called the "Crisis Ghetto." The rest of the city is called "Remainder of Cleveland."

Between 1960 and 1965 median incomes in the Crisis Ghetto had declined, while numbers and percentages of Negro female-headed families, children in such families, and unemployment had increased.

Meantime, the circumstances of Negroes outside the Crisis Ghetto had improved markedly.

Consequences of the widening gap are thought to be:

1. Poor people with limited economic potential, among whom are many female-headed families, have little chance of moving out of the ghetto.

2. Those remaining may be more discontented than when all were poor, with an explosive situation developing.

Goals and needed programs for the Crisis Ghetto:

1. Training programs and jobs paying a living wage for men, to prevent family break-ups and re-establish stable families.

2. Job programs for women.

3. Day care centers for children.

4. Better income maintenance programs for those for whom work is not the answer.

5. Institutional changes to provide better education, health, and other services.

6. The community should be "structured to provide both social control and legitimate avenues of social ascent." (p. 42)

15. WOOD, Elizabeth. The Needs of People Affected by Relocation. Philadelphia: City of Philadelphia Community Renewal Program Technical Report #17, October 1965. 55 pp.

This study undertook (1) to examine the social and economic characteristics of people displaced by Title I of Urban Renewal and Code Enforcement in order to predict characteristics of future displacements, and (2) to use these findings to estimate the number and kinds of services needed.

A. The Study

The relocation agency's records of 780 cases were studied; 401 were Title I cases and 379 were Code Enforcement cases, of which 175 were required to move because of overcrowding and 204 because of "unfit" conditions. All had been relocated and closed between January 1, 1963, and March 1, 1964.

The characteristics of the households and services needed and rendered were studied under 4 categories: economic, social, household conditions, and health. Households were classified as Aged (all persons over 61), Adult (no children under 18), or Family, because agency services were often available on this basis.

Ratings of the economic characteristics included ratings on:

a. Incomes: adequate or deficient (and degree of deficiency) in comparison with four different standards based on cost of living estimates by the Welfare Department and the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

b. Income deficiency and job situations, with job situation rated to see if the earning capacity of anyone in the household could be increased to offset income deficiency.

Ratings of social functioning were derived from the Geismar (St. Paul) method of measuring family functioning:

a. "Inadequate: community has a right to intervene,

b. Marginal: behavior not sufficiently harmful to justify intervention. . . .

c. Adequate: behavior is in line with community expectations. . . ." (p. 8)

Adult behavior was rated for "social delinquency" before and after relocation in an attempt to judge the effectiveness of social work services but the information in the records was inadequate for this purpose so the ratings are not included in this report.

Household conditions were rated as inadequate, marginal, or adequate with respect to:

a. Physical conditions, including adequacy of household furnishings and equipment, and

b. Home management, including money management. (see pp. 10-11)

Identifying health conditions was not difficult. Classifications were chronic disease, physical disability, mental illness, and mental retardation.

Services needed and rendered under each category were identified as (1) not needed, (2) needed and rendered, or (3) needed and not rendered.

a. Economic services were: employment, vocational training, and language training.

b. Social services were: supportive counseling, rehabilitative counseling, protective service, and community resources.

c. Household services were: home services for the aged, home management, and furniture. (see p. 14)

d. Health services: outpatient care, institutionalization, aged, mental, or retarded; and nursing services.

B. The Findings

The most significant finding was the extent and degree of poverty. Even by the lowest of the 4 standards used, income was "shockingly" low. In most of the households with adequate income, the income was entirely from private employment. Those partially or wholly dependent on public assistance, social security, pensions, etc., were living on much less than the Welfare Department figures for "minimum for subsistence." Sixty percent of the households had inadequate income by minimum standards, while only 6 percent had inadequate social conditions.

An effort to rate household conditions before and after relocation was unsuccessful because information was available in too few cases after relocation.

a. Many families with inadequate furnishings and equipment were dependent on public assistance which gave no help with this problem.

b. Many were rated inadequate or marginal in management, especially among families with children.

The hardship caused by the increase in housing costs which typically accompanied the move from substandard to standard housing was greatest for families with incomes under $3,000, especially for larger families.

The highest standard-of-living figures used were those of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. By these figures, only 10 percent of the aged, 30 percent of adult, and 7 percent of the family households had adequate incomes after relocation.

A temporary rent-subsidy program was available only for those relocated because of Code Enforcement. (These were the families for whom records were kept for a year after relocation.)

The characteristics of households were compared by type of displacement because the numbers being displaced by Code Enforcement (both for overcrowded conditions and for unfit situations) were increasing. Analysis by race, size of family, female head, income, etc., consistently supported the finding that households which moved because of Code Enforcement had more problems than those displaced by Urban Renewal and were harder to relocate.

The attitudes of relocated households toward their relocation and an estimate of the benefits they had received, in social and economic terms as well as housing, as expressed to the caseworker, were studied. Attitudes were recorded as negative, positive, and indifferent by caseworkers. Attitudes of a large majority were positive, and there was some evidence of change from negative to positive after enjoyment of central heat and hot water.

Study of services rendered showed many services given and many needs recognized but not served. Social work "input" occurred in the relocation process in the course of supervision, diagnosis, plan, and treatment. Problem households made up 34 percent of the sample. Services to nonproblem households were limited to businesslike help with finding housing and with the cost of moving.

Among 460 households with problems, 233 were served by one agency only, usually the public assistance department, and 75 were served by more than one during the relocation period. The records were not complete enough to permit an accurate count of services "needed but not rendered," as had been planned. Services were related to economic problems in 41 households, to social problems in 253, to improving housekeeping and budgeting in 22 and to getting furniture in 34.

C. Conclusions and Recommendations

1. The Centralized Relocation Bureau, even with skilled staff diagnosing problems and resources needed, and giving some services in the course of relocation, could not by itself be the city's agency for social rehabilitation as the counterpart of the city's agency for physical rehabilitation. (No city in the country has solved this problem.)

   a. The major problems uncovered were that only 40 percent of the families relocated had enough income to meet minimum cost of subsistence and that a low percentage of the other 60 percent were capable of supporting themselves or of increasing their earnings.

b. In spite of increased cooperation and good will, the 3 major public bodies with responsibility for low-income families (the County Board of Assistance, Philadelphia Housing Authority, and the Manpower Training Program) were not able to take care of these families' needs. Increased cost for housing came out of food allowances, which were at best at two-thirds of a minimum subsistance level for welfare clients.

c. Resources for acquiring furniture and furnishings and training in housekeeping methods were very limited.

d. Health conditions were frequent but medical services could be obtained and were used.

e. It was not possible to obtain social services for all who needed them, though public agencies were beginning to take on more trained personnel. All agencies' budgets were limited, public and private.

2. A social structure that could serve the purpose of social rehabilitation in conjunction with urban renewal would have to have 4 elements:

a. Data adequate to predict the volume and type of services which would be needed and to plan for them.

b. "Agreement among social service agencies as to the achievable and desirable social goals of urban renewal." (p. 54)

c. "A commitment from these agencies as to what resources and services they will contribute to the achievement of these goals." (p. 54)

d. An organization structure which would include procedures for carrying out agreements and commitments but not create new agencies.

3. Recommendations to the city of Philadelphia:

a. Explore bases on which the various public agencies could engage in a common program and the obstacles to such effort.

b. Study the characteristics of a social planning staff, its functions and its place in the city's government structure.

c. Try to get the anti-poverty agency under EOA to develop resources in areas of vocational training, furniture, and household furnishings, and persons to go into the home to teach homemaking, 3 areas in which needed services were deficient.

The second half of the report is made up of detailed tables showing the findings.

Note: Some points in this study may be of special interest to those planning urban programs of education and research:

A. Use of modified version of Geismar scale.
B. Use of several different standards to estimate adequacy of income and degree of deficiency.
C. Stress on impossibility of teaching budgeting to families with incomes well below subsistence level.
D. Need to know Welfare Department policy and what families can obtain from public welfare and other sources.
E. Uses and limitations in use of existing records for research purposes.
F. Stress on increasing resources for teaching home management in the home as part of anti-poverty program.

16. CREDIT Union Members by Income Groups. Credit Union National Association. Madison, Wisconsin. 12 pp. Undated.

Dr. John T. Croteau, Professor of Economics at Notre Dame University, conducted a study sponsored by the Social Security Administration, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the Credit Union National Association.

Payroll data for 27,000 employees of 6 industrial firms in the Chicago-Gary-South Bend region were compared with data from credit unions serving these firms. Questionnaires were sent to 5,000 of the employees, both members and non-members, and replies were received from 2,000.

Less than half the potential members had joined credit unions. Members on the whole were older, better paid, and had been employed longer than non-members. Attitudes toward saving and borrowing were similar for members and non-members. All income groups borrowed chiefly for consumer items and automobiles, and all income groups saved primarily to provide for emergencies and retirements. Members valued credit unions over other institutions primarily for their convenience.

See also: SIFF, Hilda. "Use of Credit Unions by Low-Income Groups," *Welfare in Review*, 3:3 (March 1965), pp. 18-19.

Miss Siff summarizes the procedure and findings of Dr. Croteau's study and comments on data not collected, such as size of family, which would have made the study more useful. She offers the following interpretation:

"Employee responses concerning why the individual did not use the credit union's services, as well as other responses, seem to indicate a need for more public education concerning the various financial institutions available, particularly among low-income groups." (p. 19)

17. HOME Interview Study of Low-Income Households in Detroit, Michigan. Greenleigh Associates, 1965. 104 pp.

Available : Greenleigh Associates, Inc., 355 Lexington Avenue, New York, New York 10017.

The city of Detroit contracted with the Greenleigh Associates to conduct a study of the needs of low-income families, and a study of services to deal with poverty, for the use of the city's anti-poverty and urban renewal officials. The study was conducted from June 1964 to January 1965.

"This is the first large-scale community-wide depth study of an urban population living in poverty. It identifies the characteristics, problems, and needs of a representative sample of 2,081 households living in blighted and substandard housing. The factual data about these households, the diagnosis of their problems and the evaluation of their service requirements were arrived at after extensive and intensive home interviews with each family." (p. i)

The households were selected from among substandard and blighted dwelling units identified in an earlier blight survey, with the exception of 250 households living in public housing projects. Only 6.8 percent of the households refused to be interviewed.

The study included population characteristics, housing, employment, family functioning, health and mental health, and use of existing agencies.

The median family income in households studied was $2,640, compared with a $6,256 median for the state in 1959. Twenty-two percent were receiving public assistance.

Forty percent of the living units had serious health or safety hazards, and one-fourth were overcrowded ". . . only 11.6 percent were found to neglect their housekeeping standards seriously in terms of those housing and housekeeping matters over which they had some control." (p. 3) Though many families had moved frequently within the city, 91.3 percent had lived in the city more than 10 years.

All households were classified into 4 problem-service classifications ranging from "Classification One - stable, well-functioning households, to Classification Four - households with severe complex problems or pathology that would require long-term services." (p. 99) In this classification 22.2 percent of the families were in Classification One, 34.6 percent in Classification Two, 26.1 percent in Classification Three, and 16.9 percent in Classification Four. In Classification One, households had an average of 2.3 problems, while the average was 11.8 for families in Classification Four. (It is recognized that problems are not of equal severity.)

The need for a variety of services at the time of relocation is brought out, as are the needs for making existing services more accessible and for increasing some services, particularly day care and vocational services.

The appendix describes the background, purpose, significance and methodology of the study. All interviewers had master's degrees in social work or certificates as visiting teachers. The interview guide was a carefully prepared and pretested research instrument which provided for a ". . . focused but nondirective interview." (p. vi)

18. TRANS-ACTION. Round-up Current Research. "The Culture of Poverty," 1:6 (September-October 1964), p. 17.

Comparison of attitudes of 35 families who were chronic relief cases with attitudes of 68 social workers and 75 teachers working with them supports the theory that there is a subculture of poverty.

Relief clients were oriented to simply existing, in the present, with nature dominating man. Professionals were oriented to active accomplishment, human mastery over nature, and planning for the future.

Different basic assumptions of the 2 groups are thought to add to the task of ameliorating poverty.

Original report, by Leonard Schneiderman in Social Work, July 1964, was not seen.

B. Evaluative Research

1. ALDRICH, Nelson, David J. Fox, Sidney Schwager and Harry Gottesfeld. "The Controversy Over the More Effective Schools: A Special Supplement," The Urban Review, 2:6 (May 1968), pp. 15-34.

The evaluation by Dr. Fox and his associates at City College of the 1966-67 More Effective Schools Program (MES) in the New York City Public Schools provides an illustration of a careful, though short-term, evaluation of a relatively new educational program which was used or misused as a basis for a policy decision and which resulted in bitter public controversy and personal recrimination among professionals.

The More Effective Schools program in 21 selected elementary schools had strong support from the United Federation of Teachers. It called for very small class size and many supporting specialists. It resulted in almost doubling the staff (and cost) in participating schools, with the purpose of compensating for deficiencies in pupils' earlier opportunities.

Fox found that morale, atmosphere, and school-community relations were distinctly better than in control schools, but that pupil achievement was disappointing and concluded that teachers were not actually innovating (in teaching methods) as effectively as the small class size would permit.

The Board of Education decreased the financial support of the program far more than the evaluation recommended.

Schwager, the spokesman for the U.F.T., using Fox's data, proposed much more favorable interpretations of the findings.

Gottesfeld, Associate Professor of Psychology and Education and Research Director of Project Beacon of the Ferkauf Graduate School of Humanities and Social Science of Yeshiva University, attacked the research instruments, presentation of data, use of terms in making comparisons, and research design and claimed to find bias in the conclusions. Fox's response to the critics points out that his recommendations were to continue, not to destroy, the MES program.

2. ALEXANDER, Frank D. "A Critique of Evaluation," Journal of Cooperative Extension, 3:4 (Winter 1965), pp. 205-212.

Researchers attempting to evaluate programs face serious difficulty in getting acceptance by those who are deeply involved in conducting the program, especially if their jobs are at stake.

". . . one purpose of this critique is to analyze the scope of evaluation at various levels [so] that all types of Extension workers may see the function as a whole and identify the types of evaluation that are especially applicable to their respective roles." (p. 206)

Evaluation can be classified into 12 levels, ranging from subjective introspection to rigorous research design. The article includes a chart describing the 12 levels and the appropriate measuring devices and extension personnel for each.

"The major purpose of evaluation in education is to ascertain the effects of teaching under given conditions on the knowledge, attitudes and behavior of those being taught in order to provide a basis for improving, justifying or discontinuing the teaching activity. . . . The major focus of evaluation is to try to determine what kind of individual emerges from the learning experience to which he is exposed." (p. 209)

Some useful by-products are: clarification of objectives, planning instruction or program on the basis of before-testing, motivating learning, providing guidance to learners, and development of teachers.

Involvement of those planning and conducting teaching activities is basic not only to their accepting the findings, but also to making an effective evaluation. "Communication between the researchers and the program personnel should be continuous. This includes the researcher's reviewing the data-collecting instruments with the program people and reporting preliminary findings to them before final reports are completed." (p. 212)

If there is reluctance or resistance of program personnel to evaluation, it is suggested that plans for a serious long-range evaluation program may define the research as self-evaluation in the beginning. Evaluative researchers "at this stage [serve] as advisors on design, instrument construction and interpretation." (p. 212)

For the evaluation findings to be used in decision making, "the research operation must be planned so that the deadline for its completion is established with respect to administrative deadlines for making decisions." (p. 212)

3. ARONSON, Sidney H. and Clarence C. Sherwood. "Researcher Versus Practitioner: Problems in Social Action Research," Social Work, 12:4 (October 1967), pp. 89-96.

Sociologists designed action-research to evaluate the effectiveness of an urban anti-delinquency program financed by the President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Crime and the Ford Foundation.

Their model called for (1) an objective or set of objectives, (2) a rationale, (3) strategies or avenues for intervention consisting of programs and an "impact model" that connects the program and the changes the programs are intended to produce, and (4) evaluation--the procedures to determine whether the program achieved its objectives.

The rationale for the anti-delinquency program depended on the concept of social role. By improving the skills of delinquency-prone young people, it was thought they could be helped to meet social expectations and improve their role performance--first in school and then in law-abiding behavior on the streets. Adults were to be helped with their role performance, with the aim of more family stability and less delinquency on the part of their children, by establishing multi-service neighborhood centers supposedly able to help them better than can the conventional agencies working separately.

A central staff prepared both program and research designs and contracted with existing agencies to carry out the program. When possible, practitioners were consulted as programs were planned.

Difficulties between researchers, program designers, and practitioners made evaluation impossible in many instances.

1. Researchers had trouble getting program designers to state specific goals in measurable terms, and to consider the "impact model" seriously.

2. Practitioners did not follow plans for control groups--because they did not understand their importance or because plans for random assignment were not feasible.

3. Researchers frequently were refused access to client records--especially by legal services, so progress could not be measured.

4. Practitioners often did not follow the program design, so that evaluation became meaningless, since the substitute program might have no theoretical connection with hoped for outcomes.

Some action programs were evaluated. The research staff learned a lot about the need for diplomacy and the need for close cooperation between research designers, program designers, and practitioners.

4. CHEIN, Isidor, Stuart W. Cook and John Harding. "The Field of Action Research," The American Psychologist, 3:2 (February 1948), pp. 43-50.

Action research appeals to people who wish to use scientific findings as a guide to effective action and to scientists who want their work to be useful. In addition to fact finding, an action researcher has a series of interactions with the community:

"To summarize, the action researcher interacts with the community in which he is working and finds special limitations imposed at every level of his work from the choice of problem areas, the specific formulation of the problem, the selection of procedures, the presentation of his findings, on through to their application." (p. 45)

Four types of action research are identified:

1. Diagnostic--Here the research agency steps into an existing problem situation, makes a study to diagnose the situation, and makes recommendations on the basis of accumulated past experience.

2. Participant--Includes the people who are to take the action in the diagnostic research process.

3. Empirical--"Primarily a matter of record keeping and accumulating experience in day-to-day work." (p. 47) The researcher should work with a succession of similar groups to arrive gradually at generally valid principles. The weakness is that the groups may differ in numerous uncontrolled ways, or that conclusions will be based on experience with a single group.

4. Experimental--"Controlled research on the relative effectiveness of various action techniques." (p. 48) This type "has the greatest potential value for the advance of scientific knowledge, since it can provide a definitive test for a specific hypothesis . . ." (p. 48) but is the most difficult to carry out. The situations must be as nearly alike as possible. The researcher must be able to predict, and to some extent control, the course of action. The measurements must be made at the proper time and must cover small changes as well as meet community-relations requirements.

"Successful experimental action research requires an extraordinary amount of planning and cooperation on the part of everyone connected with the program." (p. 49)

Examples of all types of research discussed in the article are drawn from the experience of the Commission on Community Interrelations of the American Jewish Congress, when the three authors were members of its research staff. The action programs were primarily intended to decrease prejudice and discrimination against minority groups.

5. CHILMAN, Catherine S., ed. Approaches to the Measurement of Family Change. Welfare Research Report 4, Washington, D.C. 20201: Intramural Research Division, Social and Rehabilitation Service, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, June 1966. 51 pp.

Available: Dr. Catherine Chilman, Intramural Research Division, Social and Rehabilitation Service, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Washington, D.C. 20201.

The measurement of the effects of various social services, therapeutic efforts or other intervention strategies intended to strengthen families or individuals presents a series of problems that in many ways resemble the difficulties in measuring results of educational programs intended to change family behavior.

This publication is intended as a "partial guide for further experimentation and research directed towards the measurement of individual or family change, especially as this change may be associated with various service programs." (p. 1)

The papers included in this report were chosen from among many given at a conference on family measurement because of their general applicability and because the material was not otherwise readily available in published form.

I. LAGEY, Joseph D. and Catherine S. Chilman. "Toward Measurement of Family Change Associated with Social Treatment or Other Intervention Strategies: The Challenge and Some Problems." Research Division, Welfare Administration.

Lagey and Chilman discuss the obstacles to carrying out experimental research when evaluating service programs, pointing out that of 141 family treatment projects undertaken before 1961, none met all the criteria for a "double-blind" design. In addition to the lack of suitable measuring instruments, the design of research projects has been limited by various types of contamination and by inadequate information about the intervention procedure. The authors stress the need for partial or complete replication of research projects, and for development of standardized instruments to measure change associated with services.

II. KOGAN, Leonard S. and Ann W. Shyne. "The CSS Movement Scale: A Methodological Review." Community Service Society of New York.

Kogan and Shyne describe the development of the Community Service Society Movement Scale, which began in the 1940's as an attempt to measure change in whole families, but finally became a scale to measure individual change. It provides a quantitative expression of change during the casework experience but no indication of level of adjustment in relation to norms, at opening or closing, and no separate ratings for change in different aspects of a client's adjustment and circumstances. It has been rather widely used by various agencies.

III. NYE, Ivan and William Rushing. "Toward Family Measurement Research." Washington State University.

Nye and Rushing focus on the need for more and better family-measurement instruments to enable basic research and program evaluation to proceed more rapidly and confidently. The process and some pitfalls are described, using as an example the various ways one could undertake to measure "family integration," beginning with the need for a clear and adequate statement of what it is that is being measured.

IV. SUSSMAN, Marvin B. "The Measure of Family Measurement." Western Reserve University.

Sussman comments on the preceding papers, emphasizing ". . . the need for adequate research designs for the study of family behavior before meaningful and logical measures can be developed." (p. 33) After listing problems in development of measuring instruments, he says, "Selection of

Measurements of change appropriate to the population being aided and the problem under study is crucial for valid evaluation of intervention strategies." (p. 42)

Bibliography is included.

6. DRAKE, William E. "Guidelines for Evaluating Occupational Education Programs in Agriculture." Mimeographed. 1967. 7 pp.

   Available: Prof. William E. Drake, 204 Stone Hall, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York 14850.

   Systematic evaluation is needed both to test new programs in occupational education and to justify funding. Two approaches are noted:

   1. The "result or outcome approach" which involves measurement but may not show "the real causes of a program's success or lack of success in attaining its objectives." (p. 1)

   2. The "method centered" approach which relies upon previously established "Guiding Principles" reflecting the general purposes and goals of the program being evaluated.

   A combination of both approaches is recommended.

   Seven procedural steps in making and using evaluations of educational programs are identified and discussed.

7. FREEMAN, Howard E. and Clarence C. Sherwood. "Research in Large-Scale Intervention Programs," Journal of Social Issues, 21:1 (January 1965), pp. 11-28.

   Social scientists engaged in research projects evaluating poverty programs should consider 3 major issues:

   1. The environment in which research is done.

   2. The conceptual issues involved in measuring the effect of broad-scale programs.

   3. Methodological problems in action-research programs.

   Each issue is spelled out in detail.

   The authors urge action-research personnel to take an active part in program development, drawing on knowledge of previous research, and to play a watchdog role to see that practitioners do not change the plan and make the research useless.

   Research should provide a basis for efficient allocation of program resources, and should report success in terms of "input" and "output."

   Difficulties are also spelled out.

8. HERZOG, Elizabeth. Some Guidelines for Evaluative Research: Assessing Psycho-Social Change in Individuals. Children's Bureau Publication No. 375-1959. Washington, D.C. 20402: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1959 (reprinted 1966). 117 pp. 35 cents.

The Children's Bureau has prepared this report for administrators and others considering evaluation research in response to many requests for help. Efforts to bring about social or emotional changes are difficult to evaluate, but evaluation is important.

A survey of evaluation research in psychotherapy was done to "see how the questions common to evaluation research of any kind were dealt with, and what special problems were encountered in evaluating efforts to induce social-psychological change in individuals. . ." (foreword)

Experts canvassed agreed on the questions to be asked but not on "the best means of answering them or what constitutes an adequate answer." (p. 2) The questions are:

> "1. What is the purpose of the evaluation? . . .
> 2. What kind of change is desired?
> 3. By what means is change to be brought about?
> 4. How trustworthy are the categories and measures employed?
> 5. At what points is change to be measured?
> 6. How fairly do the individuals studied represent the group discussed?
> 7. What is the evidence that the changes observed are due to the means employed?
> 8. What is the meaning of the changes found?
> 9. Were there unexpected consequences?" (p. 2)

Only the program agency can answer the first 3 questions and it must answer in terms that lend themselves to research. Practitioners often find "pre-evaluation" research more valuable than the evaluation itself in improving professional skills and knowledge; the "pre-evaluation" stage requires them to develop precise statements of diagnostic categories, goals, and methods used. "Short-term" and "ultimate" evaluations are of value chiefly to administrators.

9. JAHODA, M. and E. Barnitz. "The Nature of Evaluation," International Social Science Bulletin, Special Issue on "Evaluation Techniques," 7:3 (1955), pp. 353-364.

"Evaluation is an effort to learn what changes take place during and after an action programme, and what part of these changes can be attributed to the programme. This effort will be most successful if the evaluation is planned from the beginning, at the same time as the programme itself." (p. 353).

Evaluation deals with the question, "To what extent is the programme accomplishing its aims?" (p. 353) This cannot be answered satisfactorily without first defining the aims of the program, broadly at first, and then more narrowly as means to accomplish the aims are chosen. The aims must be stated clearly, and any consequences to be avoided should also be stated.

The steps in evaluation are:

1. Defining the *aims*,
2. Selecting the *criteria* by which accomplishment is judged,
3. Selecting the methods of *measuring* accomplishments,
4. Deciding on the *logic* or *design* of the evaluation,
5. Collecting the *data*,
6. *Analyzing* the data.

Each of these steps is elaborated upon, with illustrations from the field of reduction of intergroup and international tensions.

10. KANDEL, Denise Bystryn and Richard Hays Williams. *Psychiatric Rehabilitation, Some Problems of Research*. New York: Atherton Press, A Division of Prentice-Hall Inc., 1964. 165 pp.

Forty-nine research and demonstration projects funded by NIMH and Vocational Rehabilitation were studied in order to analyze the difficulties encountered and to develop solutions. All were concerned with implementing new rehabilitation programs for psychiatric patients. The projects all required change and encountered predictable reactions such as fantasy, anxiety, hostility, and passive and active defensive maneuvers among staff members affected.

Difficulties and practical advice are listed in compact form in the summary chapter.

Problems were operational, administrative, and methodological.

11. KERSHAW, Joseph A. "Systems Analysis and the War on Poverty." Speech before the Joint Meeting of the American Society for Training and Development and the Society for Personnel Administration, February 23, 1966. Abstracted in *PHRA*, 2:1 (January-February 1967), p. 83. (Original not seen and not available.)

The OEO, along with other government agencies, has been asked to use the PPBS or Planning-Programming-Budgeting System to analyze the relative merits of its various programs.

More is known about the costs of programs than their relative merits, but some decisions have been influenced by analysis of effectiveness. For example, health programs received little emphasis in anti-poverty funding because it was not clear that they reduced poverty. Also, evidence of more return for money expended in areas where the poor were heavily concentrated, led to a recommendation to continue to support community action programs in such areas in preference to other areas.

Accurate data on program effectiveness are needed but are difficult to obtain.

12. KLINEBERG, O. "The Problem of Evaluation," International Social Science Bulletin, Special Issue on "Evaluation Techniques," 7:3 (1955), pp. 345-352.

This is the introductory chapter of an issue devoted to evaluation techniques applicable to programs with humanitarian goals. Evaluation is needed because of scepticism about the methods used to reach goals.

Evaluation has sometimes been informative and helpful but frequently fragmentary and subjective. "What is needed is not merely more evaluation but more acceptable evaluation, based as far as possible on the rigorous demands of scientific method." (p. 347) The goal of objectivity requires emphasis on techniques of evaluation. This volume is concerned with techniques, and is addressed mainly to administrators.

13. LEVITAN, Sar A. "What's Happening, 'Baby'?--Essential Research for the War on Poverty," paper for the 126th Annual Meeting of the American Statistical Association, Los Angeles, Calif., August 18, 1966. Published in "Washington Notes" feature of PHRA, 1:5 (September-October 1966), pp. 13-17.

Deficiencies in official public reports on OEO program effectiveness are listed and deplored and partially attributed to restrictions on release of existing statistics.

The Planning-Programming-Budgeting System (PPBS) is described and its deficiencies as a basis for policy decisions are listed.

The academic community should be encouraged to interpret and evaluate institutional operations, but such research is less popular than "quantitative analysis" without substantive content because institutional research findings are likely to lead to controversial conclusions and jeopardize financial support from the sponsoring agency.

The product of research should be freely available and the researcher must be free of "thought controls."

14. MILLER, K.M. "Evaluation in Adult Education," International Social Science Bulletin, Special Issue on "Evaluation Techniques," 7:3 (1955), pp. 430-442.

Evaluation of adult education activities "entails ascertaining the effectiveness with which the objectives of those seeking further education have been and are being met." (p. 431)

So far most evaluation in this field has been "impressionistic and unsystematic." Methods of instruction and tutors should be evaluated, as well as the course content.

After the objectives (student and program goals) are clearly stated, the next step is to choose the most applicable general method and the most suitable techniques or procedures for gathering data.

Each of the 3 principal social science methods (survey, field study, and field experiment) has both advantages and disadvantages. The survey method is the easiest to administer. The most suitable for adult education is the before-and-after experimental design, but there is (1955) no published report of an adequate example.

There follows a table showing the main evaluation techniques, listing method, procedures, instruments, and indices, appropriate for adult education. There is also some discussion of difficulties commonly encountered with the most widely used techniques: rating scales, observation schedules, interviews and questionnaires, and attitude measures.

15. MORRISON, James W. "A Comprehensive Evaluation Model for Community Action Programs," Paper for the 1966 Annual Meeting of the Society for the Study of Social Problems, Miami Beach, Florida, August 26-29, 1966, 44 pp. Abstracted in PHRA, 2:1 (January-February 1967), p. 81. (Original not seen.)

"Research must be developed to evaluate the service, efficiency, and comparative impact of CAAs (Community Action Agencies)." (PHRA, p. 81).

Three possible forms of evaluation are discussed:

1. Short-term program analysis and operational research, using a pragmatic rather than a theoretical approach;

2. Reconnaissance studies and evaluation of the causes of poverty in a given area, emphasizing issues of public and social policy;

3. Differential time-analysis research measuring changes in individuals, social structures, and institutions.

The kinds of data, the treatment of data, and the kinds of things that can be learned in the third type of research are discussed.

16. SUCHMAN, Edward A. Evaluative Research, Principles and Practice in Public Service and Social Action Programs. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1967. 186 pp.

Dr. Suchman examines the conceptual, methodological, and administrative aspects of evaluative research undertaken to study the effectiveness of public service and action programs aimed at social change. Emphasis is on the use of scientific method.

A review of past efforts leads to the conclusion that "too few evaluation studies are being made and that, furthermore, those that do exist are generally of low quality." (p. 19)

What makes evaluative research difficult is the practical problem of adhering to principles of research "in the face of administrative considerations." (p. 21) Success depends on the usefulness of the study in improving services, not just the accumulation of knowledge.

A chapter on "Concepts and Principles of Evaluation" deals with the problems of looseness of definition in the use of the term "evaluation" and the "absence of any clear cut understanding of the basic requirements of evaluative research." (p. 27)

1. It examines the various definitions of evaluation, both conceptual and operational.

2. It relates evaluative research to 2 main elements in evaluation--values and objectives.

3. It discusses various types and classifications of evaluative research.

The result is a distinction between evaluation as a goal reached by various methods and evaluative research which is the use of scientific method for the purpose of making an evaluation.

The 3 basic requirements making "evaluative research" research rather than subjective judgment are:

1. Examination of the "objectives of a particular program including the underlying assumptions."

2. Development of "measurable criteria specifically related to these objectives."

3. Setting up "a controlled situation to determine the extent to which these objectives, and any negative side effects, are achieved." (p. 32)

Evaluative research requires an interest in "an activity whose objectives are assumed to have value" (p. 33) as distinguished from basic research where the interest is in hypothesis-testing. Definition of program objectives and underlying assumptions is not easy but is necessary.

Evaluative research differs from non-evaluative, or basic, research primarily in its objectives. "A basic research project has as its major objective the search for new knowledge regardless of the value of such knowledge for producing social change," (p. 75) "Evaluative research has no special methodology of its own . . ." but "adheres to the basic logic and rules of scientific method as closely as possible." (p. 81) It makes use of many different techniques and research designs.

Compromises must be made between scientific requirements and administrative needs and resources, and these affect the degree of scientific adequacy of a study.

Two major problems in methodology, the statement of objectives and the design, are discussed at length, with emphasis on the adaptations of standard procedure required for evaluative research.

The hypothesis to be tested in evaluative research is a statement of causal relationship between a program or activity and a desired effect. In social action programs there are multiple causes and multiple effects, so the question is whether a program increases the probability of the desired result. The hypothesis should be written with an awareness of assumptions about why a program may work. It should allow for the effect of "intervening variables" to avoid attributing results to spurious causes.

Deciding on the research design follows the statement of the hypothesis.

Succeeding chapters are devoted to research design, to measurement of effects, intentional and unintentional, and to evaluation as one key part of the entire process of the administration of social action programs.

The administration of evaluation research presents problems that discourage many people from engaging in it despite the great opportunities it affords.

17. SUSSMAN, Marvin B. "Experimental Research," Handbook of Marriage and the Family, ed. Harold T. Christensen. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1964, pp. 275-299.

Dr. Sussman defines and illustrates terms commonly used in discussions of research: research design, methodology, procedure, technique, experiment and experimental research.

Experimental and non-experimental research designs are described. The "shot-gun" type of research, in which one group is studied at one time is most common in family research. It is most useful as an exploratory or descriptive device. Other non-experimental designs described are "group-comparison" and "before-and-after."

Eight factors can affect the "internal validity," or genuine cause-and-effect relationships of stimulus and response: history, maturation, testing, instrumentation, regression, selection, mortality, and interaction of selection and maturation.

"External validity refers to problems of the generalizability of the findings of the study. The researcher cannot control for all conditions to insure external validity but is responsible for accounting for these conditions and their possible effects upon the validity of his study." (p. 4)

18. WARREN, Roland L. and Jesse Smith. "Casework Service to Chronically Dependent Multiproblem Families: A Research Demonstration," The Social Service Review, 37:1 (March 1963), pp. 33-40.

The research design for evaluating a new casework service was made sufficiently rigorous to meet research standards, but compromises were necessary.

The authors suggest that implementing a research design is a social process, involving setting up a special social system, which includes not only the research and operating staff but all the people whose interest must be aroused, and which becomes a new ad hoc "project system."

The "project system" is fragile; we must learn more about what holds it together and what destroys it.

It is useful to know the relation of the research person to the project system--whether consultant, director, etc. (see p. 38)--especially whether the research or the service aspects of a project come first when one precludes the other.

If implementation of findings is a project goal, key people in later follow-up decisions should be included in the project system quite early.

". . . it is unrealistic to think of the research design except in relation to the actual field situation." (p. 39) Skillful negotiating is needed to get the best possible combination of "design purity" and "service acceptability."

"Consideration of the research project as a social process may sensitize both researchers and practitioners in a way which will help them avoid many [human-interaction] problems." (p. 39)

"Sometimes events beyond a researcher's control work either for him or against him." (p. 40)

For a description of the project itself, see Wallace, David (Section III-A-8, page 68).

19. ADULT Leadership. "Evaluating Program and Performance," 1:11 (April 1953), entire issue.

The entire issue is devoted to evaluation in adult education, broadly defined. It includes articles on methods of evaluation and obstacles, starting with recognition by the issue committee that improvement in evaluation depends on better evidence than is usually obtained and more clarity in stating the goals and standards by which a program is to be judged. Some of the articles report on specific experiences.

20. "RESEARCH Interviewing in Sensitive Subject Areas," Social Work 8:2 (April 1963), pp. 3-18.

HAMOVITCH, Maurice B. "Research Interviewing in Terminal Illness." Part I. pp. 4-9.

GEISMAR, Ludwig L. and Michael A. LaSorte. "Research Interviewing with Low-Income Families." Part II. pp. 10-14.

DESCHIN, Celia S. "Some Further Applications and Suggested Principles." Part III. pp. 14-18.

Introduction

Traditionally, social workers have been reluctant to use their interviewing techniques for research purposes in intimate, emotionally charged subject areas involving people with whom they did not have a close relationship. This reluctance has been based on the individual's right to privacy and dignity. More recently, some social workers have felt that their skills could be used in research both effectively and ethically.

At the same time, social scientists have been recognizing the value of open-ended questions and have become more willing to rely on a social worker's judgment and skill to decide how to get the data in a research interview, especially when a qualitative response is wanted. Dual-purpose (research and treatment) interviewing is said to be more difficult than single-purpose, and some consider it unwise.

The papers in this group provide examples of such work, with a "humanizing touch." They were given at a meeting of the Research Section of the National Association of Social Workers in May 1962, arranged by Elizabeth Herzog.

Part I

A demonstration project at the City of Hope Medical Center, Duarte, California, supported by NIMH, called "Parent Participation in a Hospital Pediatrics Program," enabled parents of children with serious and fatal illnesses to spend as much time as they wished with their children in the hospital and to help care for them.

The research interest was in what happened to parents, children, and staff in such a program. Social workers interviewed parents frequently throughout the child's illness and were willing to participate in the research when it became clear that the questions on the interview schedule were appropriate to the ongoing casework relationship.

Questions on the effect of the child's illness on marital relationships, religious ties, and social activities, which seemed not to belong in the casework interviews, were given in the form of a written questionnaire to be filled out at home. Later, the social workers found they could obtain this information in their interviews without adversely affecting the casework relationship.

In follow-up interviews 3 months to a year after the child's death, parents were cordial and willing to respond. These interviews provided a therapeutic by-product for many of the parents. Though there was much grief, there was no evidence that the interviews themselves were traumatic.

The purpose of the interviews was made clear to the respondents at the outset and they accepted the study fully. (Some parents had gone to this hospital because of the research.) "At no point did the interviews constitute an intrusion, even the traumatic follow-up interviews, as attested by the responses of those interviewed." (p. 9)

Part II

This paper recognizes the possibility of hazards in nontherapeutic interviewing, but deals only with these questions:

1. "To what extent do people resist interviewing in sensitive areas?"
2. "What is the evidence regarding reliability of information on sensitive subjects?"
3. "Is level of social functioning correlated with the way low-income families receive the interviewers?"
4. "Is response failure related to the question of having more or less emotional content?" (p. 10)

Tentative answers are derived from a study in which the major purpose was to identify factors associated with social disorganization among residents of a low-income public housing project. Of a total population of 300 households, 36 of the most problem-ridden and 39 of the most stable families were interviewed.

1. Problem families were usually interviewed by the caseworker currently giving them family-centered treatment, and had little choice about participating. Among the stable families, only 9 percent refused (4 out of 43) when approached by experienced social workers.
2. Reliability of information obtained was checked by comparison with housing-authority records on points like dates, ages, and education, and was found to be very high. Where there were discrepancies, information on some sensitive subjects was more accurate when obtained by the interviewer.
3. Suspicious response to interviewer tended to be associated with a lower level of social functioning (as measured by the St. Paul scale) among the non-treatment families. This difference was not found among families receiving treatment, who were accustomed to being interviewed.
4. Types of questions least likely to get response were the more abstract and conceptually more difficult ones (such as respondents' expectations of married life).

The authors conclude that the value of the interview to the person interviewed is partly in the catharsis and relief of anxiety, but also in the discovery that what he has to say matters, is being taken seriously, and will be of value to someone else. "The theme of 'what you have to tell us is of value to others' was stressed heavily" (p. 14) and probably helped keep the number of refusals small.

Note: For substantive findings in this project see Geismar, "Factors Associated with Family Disorganization" (section VI-A-6, p. 98).

Part III

Emphasis in the past has been on preparation of interview schedules instead of on training research interviewers and "on pre-coded questions that facilitate analysis [rather] than on open-ended questions that enable respondents to provide the kinds of data that cannot otherwise be obtained." (p. 14)

Some principles were derived from experience with 3 studies in which experienced professional people had predicted difficulty in getting responses:

1. A study of 600 New York City teenagers attending social hygiene clinics because of infection with or exposure to v.d.

2. A study of 100 adult patients admitted to the medical wards of a metropolitan municipal hospital.

3. A study of a suburban middle-class community involving 700 interviews.

Suggested principles found applicable to research interviewing in sensitive areas:

1. "Most human beings--adults or adolescents--are likely to share significant, intimate personal data at a time of stress . . ." (p. 16)

2. "There is a relationship between feelings of stress, reliability of data obtained, and the time required to obtain these data." (p. 17)

3. "Interviewing skill is more important in assuring reliability of interview data than is the structure of the interview schedule." (p. 17)

4. "The interviewer has to be free from bias and have confidence in the capacity of the interviewee to provide understanding and insight into his life . . ." (p. 17)

The research interview gives the respondent a way to show his concern and do something that may help others.

VII. URBAN EXTENSION

A. Programs Sponsored by the Ford Foundation

1. HUNTER, Starley, Mary Nell Greenwood, Virginia Norris, and Ella B. Stackhouse. Families in an Urban Enclave 1965, Leeds Dunbar Community, Kansas City, Missouri. Extension Division, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo. 30 pp.

   Available: Mary Nell Greenwood, Director, Continuing Education for Women, University of Missouri, 124 Whitten Hall, Columbia, Missouri 65201.

   In 1963 the University of Missouri Extension Division placed a home economist in Kansas City to plan and conduct an educational program to meet the needs of low-income families in a part of the city where the service would not duplicate other services. This was a 2-year project financed by the Ford Foundation as part of its exploration of urban extension.

   "The purposes of the project were to test the effectiveness of present Extension methods in an urban area with low income families, to explore new methods and techniques of implementing a home economics program and to encourage the development of leadership for better family and community life." (p. iii Introduction)

   A bench mark study was made in March, 1963, and an evaluation study in April, 1965. Data were collected by personal interview with all available families in the community. The study was conducted by the Research and Training Division, Federal Extension Service, using University of Missouri Extension staff as interviewers.

   A newsletter had reached the most people, while meetings followed by home visits had been most effective.

   There was no doubt that the agent's presence had been felt by most families in the area. She was given credit for a significant clean-up campaign.

   Major emphasis of the program had been nutrition. After 2 years most families showed more knowledge but lower quality diets.

   There was evidence of emerging leadership and many expressions of good will and appreciation.

2. REEVES, Earl J., ed. Report on the Inter-University Seminar on Urban Extension, University of Missouri Extension Division, Columbia, Missouri, November 1966. 11 pp.

   In May 1966, representatives of institutions that had received Ford Foundation grants for 5-year experimental urban extension programs met to evaluate their experiences.

   Although no definition of "urban extension" could be agreed upon, a list of goals was accepted. Goals stress university services to leaders and to organizations in the form of on- and off-campus training programs, consultation and expertise, and bringing together on neutral ground people with conflicting ideas about urban problems and solutions. The emphasis is on training for participation in urban affairs rather than service to individuals.

The group also developed a list of recommendations for successful urban extension programs--applied to their 2 major problems:

1) how to get along with colleagues within the university and
2) how to get along with client groups outside the university.

One significant question, on which opinions differed, was the extent to which urban extension should promote action programs, with university personnel taking a cautious attitude toward the effect on the university of such participation, and preferring an educational role, while the ACTION-Housing representative felt conflict was unavoidable.

Appendix A provides in chart form a survey of the types of programs conducted by each institution and an estimate of its success. Appendix B gives names and addresses of participants.

3. URBAN Extension. A Report on Experimental Programs Assisted by the Ford Foundation. October 1966. 44 pp.

Available: Ford Foundation, Office of Reports, 477 Madison
Avenue, New York, New York 10022.

From 1959 to 1966 the Ford Foundation supported "experiments in applying the nation's university resources directly to the problems of American cities." (p. 1) The land grant colleges and Cooperative Extension Service have had "a profound effect upon America's rural economy--thus enriching the life of farm families." State universities particularly have a mandate to serve the community and must accommodate to changes in population, economic activity, and needs for services.

Grants were given to Rutgers, California (Berkeley), Delaware, Illinois, Missouri, Oklahoma, Purdue, and Wisconsin Universities, and to ACTION-Housing in Pittsburgh, a non-academic institution, and (for study purposes only) to the National 4-H Club Foundation.

The programs resulted in ideas, techniques, and insights rather than a clear-cut determination that one technique was superior to others. The traditional agricultural extension pattern was inadequate because urban problems required many different approaches.

For urban extension purposes, there were 2 main groups of urban problems. One centered around the individual lacks and community problems of low-income families, especially Negroes and recent immigrants.

The other group centered around the physical environment--"water and air pollution, traffic congestion, shortage of parking and lack of open space." (p. 6)

The universities developed different approaches depending upon the size and climate of their cities, the skills and talents of their staff and the philosophy of their presidents. The "urban agent" had a different role in each place, with home economists participating only at the Universities of Missouri and Purdue.

The universities "found as many significant differences as parallels between agricultural extension and urban extension." (p. 6)

Suitable points of contact were elusive, since urban areas already had many services.

Whereas agricultural agents dealt mostly with economic and technological problems, "urban research tends to be conceptual, exploratory, and exhortatory." Solutions to problems of motivation, cultural barriers, and defects in the schools are hard to find.

The most significant result of the experiments was that the communities served were better prepared than others to participate in federal anti-poverty programs. An important by-product was establishing liaison between the universities and government agencies.

The experience helped to crystallize questions universities must resolve about their own roles, their own structures, the relationships between extension and academic staff, and the system of rewards for extension efforts.

The use made of the Ford money and the different patterns developed at each of the participating institutions are described.

Names of project directors and a bibliography are included.

See also: A Report on Neighborhood Urban Extension, The Third Year, 1965. (III-C-7, p. 77.)

B. Role of University

1. GIBBONS, Paul E. "Education Through Involvement," Council Journal, 5:7 (April 1967), pp. 2-6. Published by The Council for Higher Education, United Church of Christ, 287 Park Avenue South, New York, New York 10010.

For 10 weeks in the summer of 1966, 40 college students lived in East Harlem, after a 10-week spring-term seminar and a short trip to the area. The project was sponsored by Cornell United Religious Work, a non-sectarian service organization for students.

Students participated in a variety of service projects in the area in cooperation with the East Harlem Tenants Council, a neighborhood association, led by Ted Valez.

The council helped to provide a welcome in the area, and let students help with projects already under way, such as formation of block committees and staffing day-camps in streets closed off for play areas.

The students worked in 4 areas: employment, housing, education-recreation, and food cooperatives.

For 2 weeks in July, 60 of the neighborhood children were brought to Ithaca to live with host families and attend a summer day-camp conducted by the project staff at Arnot Forest (owned by Cornell).

"It was the many different relationships with persons on the block and the growth of the students' own group life [rather than the concrete services performed], that affected the students most deeply and caused their perspective and commitment to grow." (p. 3-4)

One error was welcoming visits from persons the students did not recognize as "junkies," with the result that 3 of the groups were robbed and that the more stable residents were alienated, at least temporarily.

Two major lessons were the need for far more training in advance to fully prepare for differences within the community and the need to limit one's role to that of a catalyst to organizations, rather than moving faster than the people affected can move.

It is important to find minority and poverty communities where whites are still welcome and to take time to learn the problems and hopes of those communities from the inside. It is also important to mobilize institutions willing to sponsor programs, especially universities, where students and faculty are available. Universities should be prepared to support field experiences in racial and economic ghettos. They should take leadership in facing world issues and up-grading their learning and expertise with respect to urban problems.

The campus ministry has an opportunity to bring together faculty and students to learn together, to become involved in significant issues, and to understand themselves and others more fully.

A longer report on this project was written largely by participating students immediately after the field experience. It details their day-to-day activities, their reactions to the housing and the residents, and their analyses of what was happening in the projects they attempted. A few copies are available from Rev. Gibbons, CURW, Anabel Taylor Hall, Cornell University, Ithaca, New York, 14850.

2. HALL, Cleo A. "Opportunities for Involvement of Home Economics in Federally Funded Projects," speech given before the Home Economics Administrators of the State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges Association of the North Central Region, March 18, 1967, Sherman House, Chicago, Illinois. Mimeographed. 13 pp.

Available: Home Economics Division, Federal Extension Service, U.S. Department of Agriculture, Washington, D.C.

Federal funds are potentially available to universities for home economics programs under 8 laws. For each law, this paper discusses:

"1. The intent of the various pieces of legislation that authorize funds for projects that realistically may include home economics;

2. Differences among the laws;

3. Ways in which universities are set up to facilitate the funding process;

4. A brief description of some proposals for home economics projects that have been funded;

5. The current status of some of the Federal funds; and

6. The thinking of some of the persons responsible for the approval of proposals for using those funds." (p. 1)

The laws are:

1. Economic Opportunity Act of 1964,
2. Vocational Education Act of 1963,
3. Manpower Development and Training Act,
4. Vocational Rehabilitation Act,
5. Mental and Child Health and Mental Retardation Planning Amendments of 1963,
6. Older Americans Act of 1965,
7. The Elementary and Secondary Education Act,
8. The Higher Education Act of 1965.

Examples are given of some relatively newly funded programs.

Note the discussions of urban extension programs under the Higher Education Act of 1965.

3. KLOTSCHE, J. Martin. "The Urban University and the Future of Our Cities," New York: Harper and Row, pp. 50-60. 1966.

The University of Wisconsin has a strong, long-standing commitment to the extension of knowledge and its applications to everyday problems as well as to teaching and research. It is considered a proper concern of the university to try to make the results of basic urban research understandable and useful to people living in cities, just as the results of agricultural research have been transmitted to farmers through the Cooperative Agricultural Extension Service for the past 100 years.

The concept that one task of the university should be to relieve the plight of our cities was proposed by Paul Ylvisaker of the Ford Foundation in 1958 and by President Johnson in 1964, and is embodied in Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965.

There are hazards in drawing an analogy between rural and urban extension programs. "The complexities of city life make diagnosis difficult. The problem of contact and communication between the community and the university is much more involved." (p. 52) Metropolitan areas already have many extension-type services, so that the distinctive role of the university requires careful definition.

The University of Wisconsin has found that the county agent model is misleading. Urban situations are so complex that urban agents need a team approach, drawing on a wide range of academic interests.

Universities so far have had little effect on the lower classes of urban society. "The impact of university efforts in the much publicized war against poverty has yet to pass the test of relevance and applicability." (p. 53)

The urban university should develop service and training programs for professionals appropriate to present realities of urban populations and physical conditions, helping but scrupulously avoiding duplications of existing community efforts.

"Creative innovation, rather than performing routine urban services, is the vital role of the university." (p. 55)

With limited resources, the university's contribution to urban problems must be "selective, qualitative, and special." (p. 56)

The university's part in community life must be compatible with its own purposes. The special role of the university in urban extension is "that of innovator, of commentator, of analyst, of catalytic agent, of critic and advisor." (p. 56)

The urban university should also provide ". . . a new kind of education designed to help people understand the urban environment. . . ." (p. 56) It can furnish leadership to private citizens who are not yet concerned about metropolitan problems and can profitably bring together scholars, policy makers, and practitioners. Examples are given.

The author is Chancellor, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee. Other chapters deal with the urban university student, the relations of the city and the university, and the university and the arts.

4. PAULSON, Belden. "Research, Training, and Action in Milwaukee's Inner Core: A Case Study about Process." Adult Leadership, 15:10 (April 1967), pp. 361-362 and 384-387.

The University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee and the University of Wisconsin Extension, working closely together have attempted to make university resources relevant to the particular needs of the inner core of Milwaukee. Both the demands upon the urban university and the problems of the central city were considered typical of other urban areas.

A multi-purpose program was developed, made up of a series of short-term projects all related to educational needs of junior and senior high school students and their parents.

A survey to find out what the real needs were, done with the help of local residents, became an important basis for planning. One project led to another. "Most important to the program is the utilization of block workers who serve as bridges between needs on the mass level and the opportunities offered by a variety of resources, including our university." (p. 361)

The program included intensive courses to increase the skill of professional teachers working in the area as well as remedial and other work with children and young people. Each new program had a research component, used to indicate what was working or not working, and to suggest program changes.

Most of the professional staff time came from University Extension, with relatively small financial contribution from other sources. Participation by residents of the inner city, emergence of leadership, etc. are described.

5. RAYMOND, George M. and Ronald Shiffman. The Pratt Center for Community Improvement: A University Urban Action Program, Reprinted from Pratt Planning Papers, January 1967, 14 pp.

The Pratt Center for Community Improvement, which in many ways resembles an urban extension program, was financed by a grant from the Rockefeller Foundation to the Pratt Institute's Department of City and Regional Planning. "Its prime concern was with physical development [of slum areas] and with the need to eliminate the obstacles which then prevented its unfolding." (p. 2) The staff were convinced that, "unless public understanding could be achieved, there could be no objective evaluation of the merits of individual urban renewal proposals." (p. 2) Though not the total answer, physical development was needed.

Three types of activities have been carried out:

1. Technical assistance to community leaders in "target" areas in developing plans and coordinating community efforts. This type of service was largely responsible for the readiness of leaders in Bedford-Stuyvesant, through the Central Brooklyn Coordinating Council, to prepare for major public and private help from outside.

2. A major citywide educational effort.

3. Direct participation in grass-roots activities and the development of demonstration projects to attract attention and outside funds.

These 3 approaches are elaborated upon and illustrated.

Lessons learned by the center leadership are discussed under the following headings: constancy of purpose; comprehensiveness of goals; resistance to contractual relationships; concentration on operational, as against basic, research; rate of progress; community organization; funding; role in community conflict; political neutrality; improved communication; and the center and the institute.

The center has felt its action-oriented program has had a successful relationship with the university. The staff most strongly motivated to participate are in city and urban planning, but they have successfully drawn on the talents of other parts of the university. Research has been limited to problem-solving research within the capability of the staff. A policy of strict political neutrality has been maintained, and is credited with the success of the center. The staff has acted as advisors and instructors to community groups to enable them to take effective political action, state their cases clearly, deal with bureaucracies from a position of knowledge of alternatives and to improve communication.

C. Urban 4-H

1. BROWN, Emory J. and Patrick G. Boyle. 4-H in Urban Areas. A Case Study of 4-H Organization and Program in Selected Urbanized Areas, National 4-H Club Foundation, 7100 Connecticut Avenue, Washington, D.C., 1964.

Available: in state land-grant institution libraries.

Though originally oriented to working with farm youth, for the past few years, 4-H leaders at the national level have felt that Extension should meet the needs and interests of youth, regardless of place of residence.

In 1962 a study was conducted of existing 4-H work in these areas. This study included a mail questionnaire to 309 counties having urbanized areas. The results were published by the Federal Extension Service. In 1962 the Ford Foundation financed a special study of 6 urban areas where there had been 4-H programs for many years.

Full details of this research are included in the long form of the report (248 pages, plus appendix). A condensed report, of more use to program workers, was also published (37 pages).

In cities 4-H clubs attracted youth from the same socio-economic levels as other youth organizations. The public strongly identified 4-H with farm youth and political support came mostly from rural areas. Staff were more familiar with rural "influentials" than with urban.

Implications of the study include the need to classify and communicate to all personnel any intention to change the purpose or direction of the program, the need to develop professional skills suitable for urban work, and the need to develop urban financial support and professional relationships.

One far-reaching question is whether the urban 4-H agent should be primarily an organizer of clubs competing with other youth groups under voluntary leadership, primarily a resource person making state land grant college resources available to all youth groups, or some combination of the two.

VIII. PERIODICALS, CONFERENCE REPORTS, AND SPECIAL ISSUES OF JOURNALS

A. Periodicals

1. Abstracts for Social Workers

The National Association of Social Workers publishes this quarterly using abstracts prepared by the National Clearinghouse for Mental Health Information of the National Institute of Mental Health from more than 200 journals. Fields covered include: alcoholism, drug addiction, crime, delinquency, mental and physical health, employment, family and child welfare, housing, schools, civil rights, and others.

Inquiries should be addressed to the NASW, 49 Sheridan Avenue, Albany, New York 12210.

2. Children, An Interdisciplinary Journal for the Professions Serving Children

In addition to articles on services to children in a variety of settings, Children includes book reviews, digests from the professional journals, notes on developments in relevant fields, and announcements of new U.S. Government Publications.

Children is published 6 times a year by the Children's Bureau, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Single copies and subscriptions sold by U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. Reprints of individual articles are often available from the Children's Bureau.

3. ERIC-IRCD Bulletin

"The IRCD Bulletin is a bi-monthly publication of the ERIC information Retrieval Center on the Disadvantaged. It is published five times a year and usually includes status or interpretive statements, book reviews, and a selected bibliography on some aspect of the Center's special areas. Subject areas covered by IRCD include the effects of disadvantaged environments; the academic, intellectual, and social performance of disadvantaged children and youth; programs and practices which provide learning experiences designed to compensate for the special problems and build on the characteristics of the disadvantaged; and programs and practices related to economic and ethnic discrimination, segregation, desegregation, and integration in education. Appropriate professionals may ask, in writing, to be placed on the Bulletin subscription list. They will receive a free copy of each new issue. There is a nominal charge for back issues and multiple copies.

"The Center is operated under a contract with the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) of the U.S. Office of Education and receives additional funds from the College Entrance Examination Board, Yeshiva University, and other agencies for special services." (op. cit. 4:2 March 1968. p. 12)

Available: Project Beacon-Ferkauf Graduate School of Humanities
and Social Sciences, 55 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10003.
Edmund W. Gordon, editor.

4. Poverty and Human Resources Abstracts (PHRA)

PHRA is a bimonthly publication of the Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, an institute supported jointly by Wayne State University and the University of Michigan.

Its purpose is to publish summaries of current research and action programs and community and legislative developments in the fields of human resources and poverty. More than 350 periodicals and journals from the U.S., Canada, and abroad are considered, as well as unpublished papers, speeches, and research reports that come to the attention of the editors.

Inquiries should be addressed to the Editor, PHRA, P.O. Box 1567, Ann Arbor, Michigan 48106.

5. Research in Education

This publication is a monthly abstract and index service that announces reports, reviews, programs, curricula, or other materials supplied by a network of 18 clearinghouses in special-interest areas, within the general field of education. It is prepared by the staff of the Educational Research Information Center (ERIC) of the U.S. Office of Education.

Examples of special-interest clearinghouses are ERIC Clearinghouse on the Disadvantaged at Yeshiva University, 55 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York and the Library for Adult and Continuing Education at Syracuse University, 107 Roney Lane, Syracuse, New York.

Single copies and subscriptions sold by the U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.

6. Research Relating to Children

Since 1948 the Clearinghouse for Research in Child Life, which is part of the U.S. Children's Bureau, has collected "information about current research relating to children in order to make such information available for the use of investigators, administrators, program planners, and practitioners." (Bulletin 20, p. 207)

The bulletin is prepared by the clearinghouse and is issued periodically to report on research in progress or recently completed in the fields of growth and development; the child in the family; social, economic, and cultural influences; educational factors and services; social services, and health services. The bulletin consists largely of abstracts submitted by researchers, but includes information about other sources of abstracts.

Single copies available from U.S. Government Printing Office. In addition, the clearinghouse mails copies to research centers, libraries, and interested professionals.

7. Trans-action

Trans-action is a monthly publication of Washington University at

St. Louis, Missouri. It is dedicated "to further the understanding and use of social sciences." (Inside cover, 5:9 September 1968) Trans-action "publishes diverse views on subjects of public interest; they do not represent official policies of Washington University or any organization." (op. cit. p. 1)

Inquiries should be sent to Circulation Department, Box 1043A, Washington University, St. Louis, Missouri 63130.

8. The Urban Review

The Urban Review's "purpose is to disseminate information and to stimulate discussion on the problems and potentialities of education in the urban environment. This is in keeping with the fundamental objective of the Center for Urban Education, which is to contribute strategic knowledge and resources to the strengthening, improvement, and reconstruction of educational services of all kinds and at all levels within urban society.

"The Center for Urban Education is an independent nonprofit corporation founded in 1965 under an absolute charter from the New York State Board of Regents. In June 1966, it was designated a Regional Education Laboratory under Title IV of the Federal Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965." (inside back cover)

In addition to The Urban Review, the Communication Resources Unit of the Center publishes reports, monographs, bibliographies, etc., and makes library and other materials available to the region. A list of mimeographed publications is available on request.

The Urban Review is published bimonthly during the school year by the Center for Urban Education, 105 Madison Avenue, New York, New York 10016.

9. Welfare in Review

Welfare in Review is the official publication of the Social and Rehabilitation Service (formerly Welfare Administration) of the U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, which includes the Children's Bureau, Bureau of Family Services, Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, and the Cuban Refugee Program. Articles do not necessarily reflect official policy.

Welfare in Review reports on the results of research in the fields for which the Social and Rehabilitation Service is responsible and on legislation affecting Federal and State Welfare Programs. It includes statistics, by state, for federally aided assistance programs, and a list of new, relevant publications.

Single copies and subscriptions sold by the U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402.

B. Conference Reports

1. MANGEL, Margaret, ed. Understanding the Disadvantaged, A Source Book. Columbia, Missouri: University of Missouri Miscellaneous Publication No. 8. 187 pp. Undated.

   Available: Mailing Room, 417 S. Fifth St., University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri 65201.

   "This source book was planned for professional workers interested in increasing their understanding of problems of poverty and of subject matter in the areas of Family Life and Family Economics.

   "It is developed from talks, films, discussions and resource materials presented at an interagency, interdisciplinary short course 'Understanding the Disadvantaged,' held on the Columbia campus of the University of Missouri in July 1965." (Foreword)

   The book was intended to help persons planning area and local conferences and action programs. The conference was a mixture of descriptive material about poor people and discussions of programs under these headings: Profiles of Poverty; Panel: "How They Feel About Themselves -- Values and Aspirations?"; Communicating with the Disadvantaged; Writing for the Disadvantaged Adult Reader; Current Programs in Working with the Disadvantaged -- Team Approach; What We are Not Doing; The People Speak -- A Youth Panel; Where Do We Go From Here?

   The effectiveness of some sections is limited because the film or exhibit discussed is not included, and excerpts from tapes are short. The appendix includes discussion summaries, lists of references and audio-visual aids, a list of publications for low-literacy groups, and papers describing work with low-income families by extension staff in Missouri.

2. OPPENHEIM, Irene, ed. "Proceedings of the Conference on Buying and Consumption Practices of Low Income Families," February 1964. 7 pp.

   This conference considered research, community programs for low-income families, the preparation of home economists for work with low-income families, and needed types of research about low-income families. The conference was sponsored by Consumers' Union and the Department of Home Economics, New York University.

   Bibliography included.

3. PROGRAMS for the Educationally Disadvantaged - A Report of a Conference on Teaching Children and Youth who are Educationally Disadvantaged, May 21-23, 1962. U.S. Office of Education. OE-35044 Bulletin 1963, No. 17, Washington, D.C. 20402: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1963. 105 pp.

   The papers given at a conference on teaching educationally disadvantaged children and youth, May 21-23, 1962, in Washington, about a year after most of the programs had started, covered a variety of programs: statewide adult job training and retraining in West Virginia; massive public school programs in New York City, Detroit, and St. Louis; efforts at parent education at the Bank Street School in New York City; a demonstration project stressing work with parents in Quincy, Illinois; and others. Research was planned or under way in all cases but was incomplete.

4. SOCIAL Science Theory and Social Work Research, Proceedings of an Institute Held by the Social Work Research Section of the National Association of Social Workers, June 8-12, 1959.

Participants in the institute were from the fields of sociology, social psychology, and social work research. Papers and discussion centered on role and reference-group theory, organization theory, and small-group theory.

Attempts were made to establish connections between these topics and social work research and practice.

Conclusions agreed upon were:

"1. Social science knowledge in the form of propositions of various levels of abstraction can be brought to bear usefully on social work practice and research, although there is no systematic body of theory or knowledge that can be taken over. The social worker attempting research will not therefore find all that he wants in the social sciences. Further, it is unlikely that a general theory of social work can be developed.

"2. Even though we do not necessarily start with theory, it is desirable to move gradually from description toward theory-building through successive levels of generalization, since the practitioner needs generalizations on the basis of which to operate." (p. 138)

There was less agreement on other points.

5. WORKING With Low-Income Families: Conference Summary, AHEA Regional (New York and New Jersey) Conference, January 21-22, 1966. New York, Mimeographed. 41 pp. Abstracted in PHRA, 2:1 (January-February 1967).

The conference summary included papers by David Caplovitz, "Consumer Problems of the Poor"; Florence Wagner, "Home Economics Training for Wage Earning"; Jessie R. Middleman, "Summing it Up"; and one given earlier by Harold B. Capener, "American Society Spotlights the Low-Income Family."

The main purpose of the conference was to motivate professionals to make their skills available to help poor people more effectively.

6. WORKING With Low-Income Families, Proceedings of AHEA Workshop at the University of Chicago, March 15-19, 1965. Washington, D.C. 20009: American Home Economics Association, 1600 20th Street NW. 239 pp.

The contents are divided into subject headings: "An Overall View of

Poverty in Contemporary American Society"; "Nature and Scope of the Problems of Poverty"; "Culture of Low-Income Families"; "Specific Areas in Which Problems Arise as the Result of Poverty, Focusing Principally on Health, Education, and Welfare"; "Programs of Selected Organizations and Agencies Which Serve Low-Income Families with Special Emphasis on the Specific Contributions of Home Economists"; "The Outreach"; and "The Challenge for Home Economists." (pp. 5-6)

7. WORKING With Low-Income Families: Proceedings of the Massachusetts Home Economics Association Workshop, September 1965.

Papers included among others: "An Over-All View of Poverty in Contemporary American Society," pp. 5-8, by Saul Bernstein, and "Public Welfare and the Home Economist," pp. 155-161, by Ellen Winston.

C. Special Issues of Journals

1. City Almanac, A Bulletin of the Metropolitan Information Service. Published by the Center for New York City Affairs of the New School for Social Research, 70 Fifth Avenue, New York, New York 10011, 3:1 (January 1968). 12 pp.

This issue describes the organization of the New York City Human Resources Administration, lists the Community Corporations and Planning Groups and lists programs funded in fiscal 1966-67. There is also a short synopsis of welfare statistics for the year ending September 30, 1967.

Plans for this paper include publishing abstracts about current research and new projects and making reference files, information about conferences, etc., and supplementary reports on particular subjects available to subscribers.

2. International Social Science Bulletin. "Evaluation Techniques," UNESCO, 7:3 (1955).

A variety of UNESCO programs with specific goals in such fields as technical assistance, adult education, and exchange of persons, have in common the general "humanitarian goals of enriching the material and cultural resources of the people of the world, and at the same time of bringing them closer together in terms of cooperation and understanding. . . ." (p. 346)

The papers in this issue stress the scientific aspects of evaluation. They were assembled as a first step in a review of evaluation techniques suitable for international programs, and are written from the viewpoints of social psychology, adult education, anthropology, and sociology with experience drawn from a variety of programs. There is consistency in the stress on scientific method and in concern for administrative realities.

Contributors are Otto Klineberg, M. Jahoda, E. Barnitz, C. Selltiz, E. Beaglehole, M. Brewster Smith, L. Moss, C.R. Wright, and K.M. Miller.

3. Journal of Social Issues. "Poverty Dynamics and Intervention," ed. Berton H. Kaplan, Journal of the Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues, 21:1 (January 1965).

With the goal of adding to social scientists' knowledge of "the dynamics of the system of poverty," the editor states three interrelated purposes for this issue: ". . . to encourage comparative studies of the new emerging poverty intervention bureaucracies; to contribute to the elaboration of the strategic variables in the system of poverty; and to make our organizational efforts in the 'war on poverty' increasingly congruent with our enlarging understanding of such organizations. . ." (pp. 1-2)

Contributors are Berton H. Kaplan, Howard E. Freeman, Clarence C. Sherwood, Michael P. Brooks, Saul D. Alinsky, Harold Howe II, Morton Beiser, M. Elaine Burgess, Paul Glasser, Elizabeth Navarre, C. Paul Marsh, Minnie M. Brown, Gilbert R. Barnhart.

Sharp differences in viewpoint are expressed, especially on the most appropriate form of organization for the poor.

Research problems and opportunities are discussed with reference to a variety of settings including a massive anti-delinquency program in Boston (Freeman and Sherwood), a community action program in North Carolina (Brooks), the Learning Institute of North Carolina (Howe), The Public Health Service (Barnhart), and the Cornell Program in Social Psychiatry (Beiser). Four papers describe problems of specific groups--three generations of dependency (Burgess), job training for Negro men (Marsh and Brown), one-parent families (Glasser and Navarre), and a lower class group in Appalachia (Kaplan).

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